THE RURAL WOMEN
OF
NEW ZEALAND

A National Survey
(1975)

Conducted by
Members of the Sociology Staff
University of Canterbury
in conjunction with
The Women's Division of the Federated Farmers of New Zealand

1976

Patricia Maunier $16 NZ Farm.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

When the Women's Division of the Federated Farmers approached the Sociology staff of the University of Canterbury with a view to doing some research on rural women, we were enthusiastic about the possibility. The prospect of collecting information on the life of rural women seemed to us to be of great importance to understanding New Zealand society, for it simultaneously aims at two short-comings of social-science research: the dearth of information on women and the relative lack of research on rural society.

In sociology, as in most social sciences, research interests have centred predominantly upon the social life of men rather than women. In part this is due, of course, to the fact that the political processes beyond the family involve men almost to the exclusion of women, so the study of any institutions other than the family tend to concentrate upon the activities of men. In part it is also due, we are sure, to the fact that most social scientists are men, and the female point of view is therefore often overlooked. Women, after all, comprise over half the human population, and to ignore them is to provide a distorted view of social life.

In New Zealand, research on the social life of women has advanced rapidly during the past few years. The Society for Research on Women has provided an important document, Urban Women, based on a survey of women living in the four main urban centres, and they have completed a number of other studies, such as one on solo parents and one on attitudes towards women in places of work. Sociologists at several universities are also engaged in research on the social life of women, although the strong bias towards the assumption that the social activities of men are more important remains a serious problem in the discipline. The present report makes a contribution to the sociology of women in New Zealand by documenting their life styles, their problems, and their aspirations at a particular moment in one sector: rural society.

New Zealand is largely an urban society. Indeed, compared to other English-speaking countries it is one of the most urban, for a greater proportion of New Zealand's population lives in towns and cities than elsewhere in the English-speaking world / (except Australia). It is not surprising, therefore, that most social research has been carried out in cities. On the other hand, New Zealand has a cultural commitment to rural life that is of considerable symbolic importance: New Zealanders still tend to think of the farmer as the typical New Zealander. Yet sociology in New Zealand has been almost exclusively urban in its interests. Several geographers and economists have provided studies of the local agriculture in specific localities (e.g. Morris and Cant , 1966; McClatchy, 1966) or of the social problems related to economic development (e.g. Lloyd, 1974). We also have available a number of community studies in rural settings (Somerset's Littledene is a classical example), although many of these are of Maori communities and therefore provide little insight into the rural life of those of European origins. Most recently, a rural political economist, David Lloyd, has produced a study of labour resources in agriculture that points to two kinds of research problems: (1) the lack of reliable and detailed information on rural social life, and (2) the growth of problems in rural communities, notably the urban drift of younger people. Lloyd's study, in particular, indicates that sociologists should turn more attention to the rural areas of New Zealand.

The sociologists at the University of Canterbury were aware of the need for greater research efforts on the social life of women and on rural society when the Women's Division of the Federated Farmers of New Zealand suggested we undertake a survey of their membership. On our suggestion, the Women's Division agreed to expand their original conception into a national survey representing all rural women in New Zealand. Through their generous co-operation, this survey has been completed.

From its inception, the project was planned as a joint effort of the Canterbury sociologists and members of the Women's Division. The questionnaire represents a combination of our various interests; it was designed to be administered by members of the Women's Division trained by the sociologists in the art of interviewing and in the specifics of how to ask each question and record the answers. Without this active collaboration the project would not have been possible. Nevertheless, the reader should be aware of the shortcomings that necessarily follow from such an undertaking. For instance, the choice of counties to be surveyed was influenced to some extent by the availability of active branches of the Women's Division. Furthermore, the interviews were conducted almost entirely by volunteers, with consequently less control on the comparability of interview situations and the recording of answers than would be possible with a smaller, more professionally trained team. These matters are explained in some detail in Appendix A on "Methods of Research", where there is information on the specific strengths and weaknesses of our methods to help readers make informed judgments on the validity and reliability of the information in this report.

The survey was carried out in six regions of New Zealand: Northland, Waikato, Southern Hawke's Bay, Nelson, Canterbury, and Southland. These regions were selected because they provide both typicality and a range of the different rural environments present in New Zealand. Within each region, from one to five counties were chosen which together represented the nature of rural society in that region; this choice was made on the basis of land-use maps and in consultation with geographers and farm advisers who were familiar with the regions.

In order to select a random sample in each county, it was necessary to work from a list that included all the women in the county. The alternative of sampling by locality rather than roll does not lend itself to rural research and is fraught with many more limitations than advantages for this kind of research. The most easily available list is, of course, the county electoral roll. Accordingly, the female population was defined as those whose names appear on the county electoral roll, which excludes those under eighteen and those not of New Zealand or Commonwealth citizenship. Our sample is limited, therefore, to women eighteen and over who have the right to vote in county elections.

The New Zealand Census defines as urban all those living in settlements of 1000 or more. This definition is not very satisfactory for urban sociologists, for it includes many people in small towns that could hardly be considered urban. The definition of rural, however, which is simply those who are not urban, is more satisfactory, for it excludes all those living in towns or 1000 or more. One thousand people is about the maximum size for a human community in which primary relationships predominate, that is, in which everyone knows everyone else personally. The figure is therefore not simply arbitrary, but marks a sociologically meaningful cutting point. We excluded from our sample those who did not come within this definition of rural.

The sample was drawn from the county rolls by a random process, so we can state firmly that our sample represents the total adult female population of each county within specifiable degrees of chance error. Because judgment entered into the selection of counties, however, we cannot insist so firmly that our total sample of 934 women is a random sample of rural women in New Zealand, nor can we as rigorously specify degrees of chance errors. In our opinion, it is a representative sample, and the arguments for this view are presented in Appendix A.

During 1974, the questionnaire underwent careful editing and testing. A pilot project was carried out in three counties of North Canterbury during October-December 1974 in order to discover weaknesses in our research plan and inadequate clarity in any of the questions. Based on this experience, the wording of the questionnaire was finalised and the sociologists then undertook to train members of the Women's Division in each survey region, going over the questionnaire in detail to ensure that interviewers would not affect responses and would record comparable information. Each respondent then received a letter inviting her to participate in the project, followed by a telephone call from the interviewer, who then made an appointment for the interview. The interview took about an hour, after which the completed form was mailed to the University of Canterbury without the name of the respondent, thus preserving anonymity and therefore confidentiality of the information collected.

81% of those who were sent letters were eventually interviewed, a gratifyingly high return in this kind of research. Of the others, 10% refused to be interviewed, and 8% were not available, having moved, died, or been hospitalised. The rate of return is testimony of the dedication and diligence of the many Women's Division members who undertook this work.

This is the first national survey of rural women undertaken in New Zealand, and we have therefore solicited a broad range of information rather than focussing our attention on specific problem areas. In this way, we have provided much basic information on rural women in 1975 that can be used, not only in its own right, but also as a baseline for comparisons through time and with specific problems or areas. If one has some idea of the overall situation at a particular point in time, then one is able to measure differences from that standard, whether changes through time or the specific situations of other categories of the population; without the baseline, neither of these enterprises is possible. The information provided in this report will therefore be useful, not only immediately, but for years to come. The broad approach was, in our opinion, justified for these reasons.

Nevertheless, the attempt to provide information across the wide range of aspects of the life of rural women in New Zealand necessarily limited the findings in other ways. Given the restrictions in resources, and the time of respondents, breadth in one direction necessitated limitations in other directions. One of the important questions we could not research, for instance, was the labour contribution of the total family to the farm. In his study on farm labour, David Lloyd pointed out that there is no adequate information on this subject, and his admittedly crude estimate that one half of paid farm labour is provided by the farm family may be far from the mark (Lloyd, 1974 , p.38). A national survey of the sort we have undertaken could have tackled this problem and provided useful figures on it - but at the expense of other aspects of the survey. We made the decision that our concern was with rural women, not rural families, a decision with which our sponsors concurred, since that was their major interest as well. Consequently, the report provides extremely useful and new information on the contribution of the farm woman to running the farm, but it does not tell us anything about the contributions of children.

Another way in which the survey is limited is in its inability to provide much information on subcategories of rural women. It would have been interesting, for instance, to have been able to make statements about Maori women in the rural areas, or about the wives of share-milkers, or about women farming in their own right. A national sample provides such small numbers in each of these categories that generalising statements are not possible. The areas from which we drew the sample caused an under-representation of Maori women, so that there are only fourteen in it; the sample included only fourteen wives of share-milkers, and only eighteen women farming in their own right. However, having now provided a detailed statement about the life of rural women in New Zealand, this report will allow others to research specific groups to make informed comparisons of such groups with the overall patterns.

Since this is the first New Zealand survey of its kind, the information in this report is of a unique sort, and the reader should be on guard against making unwarranted claims upon it. In particular, and most important, it is not possible to predict trends from this report alone, for the information here relates to a single moment in the life of each woman interviewed. It is, as it were, a snapshot of the rural woman in New Zealand. When one peruses the family album, one must look at more than one snapshot to get an idea about a person's growth, changes in appearance, dress, or height. Similarly, this report gives a picture of rural women in 1975, and any attempt to find out how their life is changing must involve comparing this picture with information from other sources. Such comparisons must be made with caution, for they will necessarily be based upon information of different sorts.

With these limitations clearly in mind, let us look at some of the findings of the survey. What is the rural women in New Zealand like, and what problems and satisfactions does her life entail?

In accepting the definition of "rural" used by the National Census, as mentioned above, we have provided information on a rural population that can be compared to the census materials. To many New Zealanders, the characteristics of this population may come as something of a surprise, for the stereotype of the rural woman is a farmer's wife, and yet only sixty-five percent of the respondents live on farms, and not even all of these are farmers' wives. The remainder are spread through a wide range of occupations and life styles, and it is therefore clear that any attempt to understand the aspirations, needs, and problems of rural women cannot be limited to a study of farmers' wives. Because farm life is different from any other in some important respects, we have provided information separately on farm women whenever possible, but we believe that rural community implies the entire range of rural situations.

The portrait of the rural woman that emerges from this study indicates that she has a high commitment to family life. The rural woman marries earlier and has more children than the urban woman; furthermore, a higher proportion of rural women are married at the present time. In many cases, the rural woman runs her household single-handedly, with little or no assistance from husband or children, although they are involved in making decisions about family expenditure and education. They are, however, available in times of illness or other emergency, as are other relatives, friends, and neighbours.

If she lives on a farm, the rural woman not only attends to the family's needs, but also often cooks and does the laundry for employees, to say nothing of farm tasks outside the home, such as helping with the stock, milking, paperwork, driving the tractor, and being the "handyman". Decisions relating to the day-to-day running of the farm are usually made by the husband, but as with the wider issues relating to household matters, those relating to the farm are increasingly being made jointly by husband and wife. The wider the implications for the family of any decision, the more likely the family is to be involved in making it, whether it relates to the household or to the farm.

Rural women have a great deal of contact with their relatives, particularly with their grown-up children, their parents, and their husband's parents. However, visiting is considerably less frequent than contact by telephone or mail, which suggests that these services are very important to the rural woman for keeping in touch with her relatives.

Given the high degree of involvement in family and/or farm life, it is probably not surprising that far fewer rural women than their urban counterparts have ever been lonely or depressed. It is also not surprising that a larger proportion of them consider that their home and family are the most satisfying aspect of their life. Indeed, of the 1514 replies to the question "What aspects of your life do you find the most satisfying?", almost half (45%) are concerned with aspects of the family (see Table 30.18 in Appendix B). As one woman put it, "Family and home life take pride and pleasure."

In general, rural women do not consider themselves badly off. In material terms, very few of them reported that they have to "do without many things needed", and quite a large number were able to afford extras (see Table 2.31). When asked how their life could be made more satisfying, half of them mentioned money or material possessions, but this is probably what most people anywhere would say to such a hypothetical question, and we do not conclude from this that rural women are either more materialistic or more deprived than other women in New Zealand. Indeed, we found a relatively high level of satisfaction with life generally, which indicates a happier rural population than we had expected to find. While their family was by far the most satisfying aspect of their lives, some women pointed to the independence and freedom that the rural situation offers, others to the peacefulness and open spaces, still others to the friendliness of neighbours and the satisfactions of community. The vast majority found satisfaction in aspects of life that are common to urban and rural life, such as family, friendship, hobbies, sports, and gardening, so we are not entirely convinced that rural women are more satisfied with their lot than are urban women, although that is certainly suggested by much of the information we have collected.

An important part of rural society is the amount of social life it includes. We find that many rural women have varied, interesting, and active social lives; they are not ideal, of course, but neither are they deprived or unsatisfactory. The general picture that emerges is of rural social life being rather full and complex, with only minor and occasional limitations of what is desired.

An important part of their social life is the large amount of voluntary community work that rural women undertake. While about one third of urban women do community work, almost half of rural women volunteer. Many also participate heavily in organisations and clubs, far more so than do urban women. Not only is there a higher proportion of rural women who belong to organisations, but the level of participation is very high, as indicated by the fact that half of those who are members hold at least one official position in an organisation. It is interesting that of the six regions we surveyed, participation in organisations and clubs is highest in Canterbury and lowest in Nelson.

Rural women are involved in many leisure activities, such as sport, reading, and sewing. Watching television is now an integral part of rural life, occupying an average of 16 hours each week, although the variation is enormous, ranging all the way from no time at all to more than sixty hours per week. Less than one woman in fifteen does not watch any television.

Church attendance is widespread and frequent among rural women. Rural women also go out socially, although some not as often as they would like, and there is a great amount of visiting and other kinds of social contact, such as telephoning neighbours. Most women have a fortnight's holiday each year, some even more.

We were interested to discover that rural social life varies somewhat between the regions of New Zealand that were surveyed. For instance, women in Southland have more friends than do women elsewhere. Women in Canterbury and Southern Hawke's Bay go to church more frequently than in other regions of the country. No substantial differences were discovered, however, between women living on farms and the others, and the differences between groups are minimal.

Another finding that somewhat surprised us is that rural women do not consider isolation a serious problem. Very few even mentioned it when asked what aspects of their life could be improved. The fact is that, in objective terms, rural women are not generally isolated, although there are of course exceptions. Their mail and telephone services are adequate, and their visits to town are sufficiently frequent to keep in touch with the rest of society. Almost all of them can drive, and the vast majority have some kind of transport available, either public or private.

Where distances do cause problems is in schooling, for many rural children must travel miles to school and home each day. The extreme was represented by one woman who spends an hour and a half driving her children to and from the bus stop each day, after which they have to make a long journey on the bus. Many women are unhappy that the children themselves spend so much time on the bus and that the distances sometimes preclude their participation in extracurricular activities. Some women are disappointed that their children had to board away from home, since family life is so important to them.

Opportunities for employment are not inadequate in quantative terms, for there seem to be sufficient openings for the numbers of women seeking work. On the other hand, the particular kind of employment a woman seeks may not be readily available in the areas where she lives, and a few women mentioned that they would be happier with some kind of employment. Furthermore, some women who are qualified nurses or teachers are unable to exercise their professions because there are no positions available near them. We shall return to this problem in the concluding chapter of the report.

In general, rural women are better educated than their husbands, though this comparison is far more complicated than a simple statement can convey. Indeed, the detailed analysis of all the aspects of rural life we have touched on in this introduction is provided in the following chapters.

The basic information on rural women, including their origins, education, employment, marital status, and geographical mobility, is provided in Chapter Two. Chapter Three deals with the rural family as it appears from the survey, as well as contact with other relatives and the participation of women in family decisions. Chapter Four outlines the problems faced by rural women in the areas of isolation, schooling of their children, employment, and the availability of further education. In Chapter Five we provide the detailed information on women's contribution to the community, their participation in organisations, and their social and leisure activities. Finally, in Chapter Six we indicate what we consider to be the major implications of our findings in the areas of policy and further research.

CHAPTER TWO

SOCIAL BACKGROUND AND CHARACTERISTICS OF RURAL WOMEN

This chapter provides an overall picture of a 'rural woman' and of her life situation. Some general, descriptive characteristics are presented first, followed by a more detailed consideration of education and employment, and a further section focuses on women living on farms and examines the type and size of such holdings. The final section discusses the extent of residential mobility recorded by this survey.

Throughout the chapter our concern is with comparing different groups of women who live in rural areas and, wherever possible to contrast their situation with that of urban women. Reference is also made to other published information, especially that contained in the Census of Population and Dwellings. This shows how the survey findings can be related to a larger number of people than those interviewed. It also assists in exploring some of the possible implications of the survey information.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

This section discusses the birthplace, race, marital status, husband's occupation and place of residence.

Birthplace

A slightly higher proportion of the rural women respondents are born in New Zealand than of the respondents to the Women at Home (p.7) and the Urban Women (p.10) surveys.

TABLE 2.1

PROPORTION OF RESPONDENTS BORN IN NEW ZEALAND IN THREE SURVEYS

Survey	%
Rural Women	89.1
Women at Home	82.0
Urban Women	80.0

This survey under-estimates the proportion of women born overseas because of the form of voting qualifications in force at the time of the 1974 Local Body Elections. Persons born in countries outside the British Commonwealth were excluded from these Electoral Rolls unless they had taken New Zealand Citizenship. This is, however, likely to be a small error, as three-quarters of the respondents born overseas came from the United Kingdom or other British Commonwealth countries and are therefore included on the Electoral Rolls. Among overseas birthplaces, the United Kingdom and Australia predominate, as shown in Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2

BIRTHPLACE OF RESPONDENTS

Country of Birth	%	Number
New Zealand	89.1	832
United Kingdom	6.4	60
Other European countries	1.0	10
Australia	1.3	12
Elsewhere	1.3	12
No response	0.9	8
TOTAL	100.0	934

Race

The respondents are almost exclusively of European origin; the proportion is greater than that of the Urban Women survey, (p.11) as indicated in Table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3

RACE OF RESPONDENTS

	% Rural Women	% Urban Women
European	98.3	93
Maori	1.5	4
Polynesian	0.1	2
Other Non-European	0.1	1
TOTAL	100.0 N=934	100 N=5,398

The small number of Maori respondents, fourteen in all, means that no conclusions can be drawn from the survey relating to Maori women living in rural parts of New Zealand.

Age

The year of birth of respondents ranges from 1896 to 1956. The age distribution, as of 1975, is shown in Table 2.4.

TABLE 2.4

AGE OF RESPONDENTS

	%	Number
18 - 24	6.4	60
25 - 54	72.7	679
55 or more	20.4	191
No response	0.4	4
TOTAL	99.9	934

Almost three-quarters of the respondents are in the middle age-group of 25-54 years. Substantial differences in the age distribution of urban and rural people have been shown to relate to selective migration (Gill & Gill, 1975). This is examined in more detail later in this chapter. Comparison of the age distribution shown by the Urban Women Survey is difficult, for the Urban Women Survey included women between 16-59 years, while this survey includes all women over 18 years of age.

There are few differences in the age distribution between the counties surveyed. In the Waikato counties there is a lower porportion of women over 55 years than in the whole sample; in the Northland counties there is a lower proportion under 25 years old. The full distributions are shown in Table 20.1 in Appendix B.

Marital Status

Compared to the Urban Women respondents, more of the rural women are married, fewer are single, divorced or legally separated. The comparison is shown in Table 2.5. The dissimilarities between the two surveys are striking, despite the difference in the base ages. 22% of the urban women have never been married, compared to 3% of the rural ones. The lower proportion should not be taken, however, as an indicator of the propensity of rural women to marry. Rather, it is more likely to indicate that single women move from rural areas. Reasons for this may be the lack of employment opportunities in country areas and the location of most institutions of further education in cities. Furthermore, the fact that the sample included no one under eighteen somewhat diminishes the proportion of single women.

TABLE 2.5

MARITAL STATUS OF RURAL AND URBAN WOMEN

Marital Status	% Rural Women	% Urban Women*
Married	89.9	72.0
Widowed	6.1	3.3
Divorced or Separated	0.9	2.7
Never Married	3.1	22.0
TOTAL	100.0 N=932	100.0 N=5,398

*Source: Urban Women, calculated from Tables II and III, p.10.

The proportion of widows shown by the Urban Women survey is a substantial under-estimate of the actual number in our cities; it results from the exclusion of women over 59 years from the sampling frame. In fact, the proportion of women who are widows is higher in urban than in rural areas. Analysis of the Census data for Canterbury Region shows that the proportion of women who are widows is 50% higher in the urban areas than in the rural ones (Gill,1976, p.3.23).

Husbands' Occupation

Only 10% of the respondents do not have a husband. 63% of the husbands are connected with primary production as either proprietors or employees. Corresponding with the general Census of Population classifications, information was collected on the occupational status of respondents' husbands and on the particular type of work he was involved in. Table 2.6 shows the pattern of occupational status.

The 'part-time' category of Table 2.6 refers to 'hobby farmers'; these are people who operate a small holding on a semi-commercial basis for residential, rather than profit, purposes.

The distribution in Table 2.6 does not indicate the distribution of male occupational status in New Zealand rural areas, but only of married men. It therefore deviates substantially from the position presented by the Census of Population and Dwellings. For instance, analysis of the

1971 Census data for the seven rural counties of North Canterbury shows that 17% of males were employers, 15% were self-employed, and 67% were employees (Gill,1976,p.3.38).

TABLE 2.6

OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS' HUSBANDS

Occupational Status	%	Number
Employer	17.1	144
Self employed	44.3	373
Employee	26.8	226
Part-time farmer	3.0	25
Retired farmer	2.3	19
Other retired	5.3	45
Employer and employee	0.4	3
Other	0.5	4
Not specified	0.4	3
TOTAL	100.1	842

This compares to the husbands of this survey, 17% of whom are employers, 44% self-employed, and 27% employees. In so much as the survey is representative of all husbands in the rural parts of New Zealand, it may be concluded that a major part of the rural males who are employees must be unmarried.

The distribution of types of occupation of the respondents' husbands is shown in Table 2.7.

63% of the economically active husbands are involved in agriculture, including stock and crop farming as well as orchards, hops and tobacco, vegetable growing and bee-keeping. 6% of the economically active husbands are proprietors of non-agricultural businesses, such as farm and transport contractors, shop-keepers, garage owners, and hotel and motel owners. The 3% of the working husbands described as professional include teachers, solicitors, doctors, ministers of religion, pilots, and auctioneers. 6% of working husbands are tradesmen, including carpenters, mechanics, electricians, painters and decorators. The 14% of working husbands classed as 'other employees' include forest service and local body drivers and labourers, freezing workers, storemen and salesmen, dairy factory workers, and oil-rig workers.

As with the information on occupational status, Table 2.7 cannot be regarded as indicating the distribution of male employment in rural areas.

TABLE 2.7

OCCUPATION OF HUSBAND

Occupation	% Of Husbands
Farmer	50.6
Farm manager	3.1
Sharemilker	1.7
Farm worker	4.7
Farmer-employee	2.4
Fisherman	0.2
Businessman, proprietor	5.5
Professional	3.2
Tradesman	5.8
Other than farm worker employee	13.5
Retired	8.0
Not specified	1.3
TOTAL	100.0 N=842

Table 2.8 shows the occupations of husbands directly connected with agriculture.

TABLE 2.8

OCCUPATIONS OF HUSBANDS' CONNECTED WITH AGRICULTURE

Occupation	% Of Husbands with Agricultural Occupations
Farmer	80.8
Farm manager	4.9
Sharemilker	2.7
Permanent farm worker	5.7
Casual farm worker	2.1
Farmer-employee	3.8
TOTAL	100.0 N=527

Full-time farmers comprise 81% of the husbands in agriculture. The ratio of farmers to farm employees is approximately four to one; this certainly under-estimates the number of employees in agriculture. The Agricultural Statistics (1973) show that the ratio of farmers to permanent farm employees is approximately two to one. The Census of Population and Dwellings (1971) shows that the ratio of farmers to permanent and casual farm employees is approximately three to one.

These ratios differ considerably from the figures in Table 2.8. Part of the difference may be due to sampling error and to lack of representativeness of the sample. However, this is unlikely to account for the substantial discrepancy. It must be concluded, in so far as the survey is representative of rural areas, that a large part of the hired farm work force consists of single men. This conclusion is supported by the age distribution of farm employees; it has been shown that these are predominantly young males and that 50% are under 25 (Gill & Gill, 1975). It can be presumed that many of these men are unmarried.

Place of Residence

The sample includes women living on and off farms. For the purpose of the survey 'farm' relates to residence on a farm; this does not necessarily mean that the respondent is a farmer's wife. The category includes wives of farm managers and farm workers and even persons having no connection with farming who rent accomodation on farms. Table 2.9 shows the distribution of residence of the respondents.

TABLE 2.9.

PLACE OF RESIDENCE OF RESPONDENTS

Residence	%	Number
Living on a farm	64.6	603
Not living on a farm	35.3	330
Not specified	0.1	1
TOTAL	100.0 N=934	934

Almost two-thirds of the respondents live on farms. Half of those living off farms are resident in small towns or townships. By the definition of "rural" we have used, each of these towns has a population of less than 1,000 persons.

The respondents' description of the area in which they live is shown in Table 2.10.

TABLE 2.10

RESPONDENTS' DESCRIPTION OF THEIR AREA

Area	%
Isolated rural	8.5
Rural	78.8
Small town	12.3
Large town	0.3
Not specified	0.1
TOTAL	100.0 N=934

Seven out of eight respondents consider that they live outside the small population centres. However, such rural residence does not automatically imply isolation, as will be discussed in Chapter Four.

EDUCATION

Information was collected on school and further education. The distribution of respondents' school qualifications is shown in Table 2.11, where it is compared to the findings of the Urban Women survey.

TABLE 2.11

RESPONDENTS' SCHOOL EDUCATION

	% Rural Women	% Urban Women*
No secondary school	15	14
1 - 3 years secondary school (no qualification gained)	48	47
School Certificate	8	8
Above School Certificate qualification	28	21
Still at school/not specified	1	10
TOTAL	100 N=934	100 N=5400

*Source: Urban Women, Table V, p.36.

A higher proportion of rural women than of urban women have gained a qualification above School Certificate. The other proportions are essentially the same.

Education of Spouses

As a group, the married respondents are better qualified than their husbands. This is shown by Table 2.12, which compares the school qualifications of wives and husbands.

TABLE 2.12

COMPARISON OF SPOUSES' SCHOOL EDUCATION

Husbands' Secondary Schooling	Wife's Secondary Schooling None	Till & including School Certificate	Above School Certificate	Totals
None	70	85	18	173
Till and including S.C.	34	329	123	486
Above School Certificate	6	72	87	165
TOTAL	110	486	228	824

The marginal totals of Table 2.12 show the proportions of wives and husbands with various levels of school education. The same proportion (59%) of each group have attained school certificate, but 28% of the wives have a higher qualification compared to 20% of their spouses.

The diagonal of Table 2.12 indicates where wife and husband have a similar level of education; this is the case for 486 couples, 59% of the total. Cells above and to the right of the diagonal indicate couples where the wife is better educated than her husband; there are 226 such cases, 27% of the total. Cells below and to the left of the diagonal indicate where the husband is better educated than his wife; there are 112 such cases, 14% of the total.

The majority of spouses have a similar level of education. Where the level of education is different, the wife is twice as likely to have reached the higher level than is the husband. Large differences in the level of education between wife and husband are very infrequent; only for 24 couples, 3% of the total, did one spouse have no formal qualification while the other has been educated above School Certificate level.

The distribution of further education has a slightly different pattern. 40% of the married respondents have gained some form of tertiary qualification, compared to 34% of their husbands. Although overall the wives have more of these qualifications in some areas the husbands predominate. A notable difference between the spouses is with degree and teaching qualifications. 22 (3%) husbands have a degree compared to 12 (1%) wives, while 11% of the wives are qualified teachers compared to 1% of the husbands. The distribution of further education of the respondents and of the husbands of married respondents is shown in Table 2.13.

TABLE 2.13

FURTHER EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF SPOUSES

Type of further education or training	Respondents		Husbands	
	%	Number	%	Number
No further education	59.3	502	65.4	553
Degree	1.4	12	2.6	22
Teaching	10.4	88	1.2	10
Nursing	12.0	102	-	-
Secretarial, Commercial	7.2	61	0.4	3
Agricultural diplomas	0.2	2	3.1	26
Other diplomas	1.7	14	0.9	8
Other farming courses	-	-	1.9	16
Trade Certificates	3.5	30	19.6	166
Police/Armed Forces	-	-	1.1	9
Technician	0.6	5	0.4	3
Creative	0.7	6	0.2	2
Technical courses	0.6	5	0.8	7
Other	0.4	3	0.1	1
Part degree/still studying	0.6	5	0.7	6
No response	1.3	11	1.7	14
TOTAL	100.0	846	100.1	846

More husbands than wives hold trade certificates and apprenticeships of various kinds. 5% of the husbands hold tertiary agricultural qualifications (mainly Lincoln and Massey University Diplomas). If these, and nursing qualifications in the case of the wives, are classed as trade certificates, then 25% of the husbands hold these compared to 16% of the wives.

Education by Occupation of Husband

There is no apparent link between the respondent's educational level and the occupation of her husband. Table 2.14 shows few real differences between the various occupational categories and the respondent's education.

TABLE 2.14

COMPARISON OF HUSBAND'S OCCUPATION AND RESPONDENT'S EDUCATION

Husband's Occupation	Respondent's Secondary Schooling % None	% Till and including S.C.	% Above S.C.	Not Specified	
Farmer	11.7	55.9	31.7	0.7	100.0
Farm Manager, Sharemilker	2.5	67.5	27.5	2.5	100.0
Farm worker	2.4	61.9	35.7	-	100.0
Farmer-employee	10.0	65.0	25.0	-	100.0
Businessman, Proprietor	6.3	72.9	20.8	-	100.0
Professional	-	40.7	59.3	-	100.0
Tradesman	6.1	71.4	22.4	-	99.9
Employee other than farm worker	21.1	64.9	13.2	0.8	100.0
Retired	40.3	38.8	17.9	3.0	100.0
					N=842

The notable features of Table 2.14 are the high proportion of respondents whose spouse is retired who have no formal secondary qualifications and the higher proportion of qualifications among the respondents with a husband in a professional occupation. The former of these is presumably a factor of age, which is discussed below. There are no differences in the educational attainment of farm and non-farm respondents, nor between farmer's wives and other groups, excepting the retired and professional group.

There is also little association between the proportion of women with a given further education qualification and husband's occupation. However, the wives of men in some occupational categories have more than their proportionate share of certain qualifications. 51% of the married respondents are farmers' wives, yet hold 53% of the teaching qualifications and 55% of the nursing ones. The wives of professional men make up 3% of the married respondents, yet 14% of the degree holders and 9% of those with teaching qualifications are in this group. It cannot be said that the wives of farmers are, as a group, better educated than wives of other occupational groups, but a woman with a teaching or nursing qualification is more likely to marry a farmer than a man in some other rural occupation. This confirms a widely held opinion that farmers and potential farmers often seek marriage partners among the better educated women.

Age and Education

The distribution of secondary education and of further education is shown in Tables 20.2 and 20.3 in Appendix B. As would be expected, a higher proportion of the younger respondents have received more secondary education and hold further qualifications than do the older women. Over half the respondents, irrespective of age, have no further education or training.

Education and Type of Area

Table 2.15 shows the comparison of respondents' school education and the type of area in which they lived before moving to the surveyed counties. In this table the category 'rural' combines those persons who have always lived in one of the survey counties plus those who have moved there from another rural place. 10% of the respondents have always lived in the area which was surveyed, 9% have moved there from an isolated rural area and 35% from a rural place' these 54% of the respondents are grouped as 'rural' in Table 2.15. 16% of the respondents have moved to their present rural county from a small town, 15% from a large town or city, and 12% from metropolitan areas.

TABLE 2.15

COMPARISON OF PREVIOUS AREA AND RESPONDENTS' SCHOOL EDUCATION

	Respondent's Secondary Schooling				
Area	% None	% Till and including S.C.	% Above S.C.	Not Specified	Total
Rural	19	57	23	1	100
Small town	13	62	25	-	100
City or Metropolitan	10	53	35	2	100
					N=934

More of the 'rural' respondents have not attended secondary school than of those who have moved to the survey counties from an urban place. The latter respondents are also proportionately better qualified than the 'rural' ones.

This finding is confirmed by considering the type of area in which respondents were brought up. 70% of the women with no secondary qualifications were brought up in rural or isolated rural areas, compared to 6% brought up in metropolitan areas. This is shown in Table 2.16.

TABLE 2.16

COMPARISON OF AREA BROUGHT UP AND RESPONDENTS' SCHOOL EDUCATION

Area	Respondent's Secondary Schooling % None *	% Till and including S.C.	% Above S.C.	Not Specified	Total
Rural	18.6(71.9)	57.8(58.6)	22.3(46.7)	1.3	100.0
Small town	14.0(18.7)	54.8(19.3)	30.6(22.2)	0.5	100.0
City or Metropolitan	5.9(7.9)	56.8(19.8)	36.8(26.4)	0.5	100.0

*NOTE Percentages in brackets are of total in given educational level; they do not total 100 in each column because some respondents did not specify type of area.

The proportion of respondents with higher than school certificate increases from rural, to small town, to city-metropolitan place where they were brought up.

Further education and training are also related to the area in which they were brought up. 58% of the respondents were brought up in an area they describe as rural; as a group, they are under-represented among the holders of degrees, teaching and nursing qualifications. 38% of the respondents with degrees, 41% of those with teaching qualifications, and 37% of those with nursing qualifications had been brought up in a rural place. On the other hand, persons brought up in cities and metropolitan areas make up only 18% of all respondents, yet such women hold 23% of degrees, 26% of teaching and 34% of nursing qualifications.

These differences could be explained by a poorer standard of education in rural areas or by a lower level of attainment among rural youth. A more plausible explanation is selective migration; that is, the better educated people are more likely to move than the less well educated. If this encompasses movement from country to town as well as from town to country, the above differences will occur. The better qualified rural women will be more likely to move to towns than the less educated; part of this will be to gain the opportunity for tertiary study. Some of these women will not return to the rural areas, but will be replaced by women brought up in urban areas. If these women are also better qualified, the average educational difference between the remaining rural women and the in-coming urban ones is accentuated.

Education by Region

Table 2.17 shows the pattern of school education by the provinces in which the respondents reside.

TABLE 2.17

EDUCATION BY REGION

Region	Respondent's Secondary Schooling % None	% Till and including S.C.	% Above S.C.	Not Specified	Total
Southland	15.2	62.2	22.0	0.6	100.0
Canterbury	12.0	54.3	32.7	1.0	100.0
Nelson	21.6	47.2	30.1	1.1	100.0
Southern Hawke's Bay	10.9	65.2	22.8	1.0	100.0
Waikato	11.1	54.9	32.1	1.9	100.0
Northland	17.6	61.8	20.6	-	100.0 N=934

Table 2.17 shows that proportionately more of the respondents residing in Southern Hawke's Bay and Waikato than of those living in the other regions have attended secondary school. 11% of the Southern Hawke's Bay respondents have not attended secondary school compared to over 20% of the Nelson respondents. Proportionately more of the Canterbury respondents have gained a qualification above school certificate than of those living in the other provinces.

Despite the higher proportion of Nelson residents who have not attended secondary school, more of the respondents living in this province have gone beyond school certificate than in Southern Hawke's Bay. There is an almost inverse relationship between these two proportions across the provinces in which respondents live.

In all the survey areas more than half of the respondents have no further education or training. The proportion without a tertiary qualification or training ranges from 51% of the Waikato respondents to 69% of the Southland ones. The full distribution of further education by region is shown in Table 20.4 in Appendix B.

EMPLOYMENT AND OCCUPATIONS

This section discusses the type of employment and the nature of occupations held by the respondents. Throughout this section 'employment' means paid work away from home;

it does not include paid or unpaid involvement in running the family farm or other business.

Type of Employment

Less than one quarter of the respondents are in paid employment; this contrasts with almost half of the respondents to the Urban Women survey (p.52). The comparison, by type of employment is shown in Table 2.18.

TABLE 2.18

RESPONDENTS EMPLOYED

	% Rural Women	% Urban Women*
Not working	76	54
Working full-time	8	28
Working part-time	12	12
Working seasonally/ occasionally	2	-
Relieving	1	-
Not specified**	1	6
TOTAL	100 N=934	100 N=5227

*Source: Urban Women, p.52
** Including "at home" and "n.s." in Urban Women

Forty-nine percent of the 224 rural respondents who are employed describe this as 'part-time work', although on a permanent basis. 34% say that they are in regular 'full-time' work, 10% report that they work ' seasonally or occasionally', and 4% on a 'relieving basis'.

Employment and Marital Status

Twenty-two percent of married respondents are employed compared to 46% of those who are not married. The distribution of the type of employment and the marital status of respondents is shown in Table 2.19.

This table shows that 55% of the 172 married respondents who are employed are doing part-time work. In fact, married women comprise 91% of the part-time workers, but only 66% of those in full-time employment. Seven of the twenty-nine respondents who have never married are not in employment. This seems a surprisingly high proportion, but some of these are occupied in farm work and household duties for a relative (usually father or a brother). These contributions are discussed in Chapter Three.

TABLE 2.19

COMPARISON OF RESPONDENTS' MARITAL STATUS AND THE TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT

Marital Status	Not Employed	Type of Employment Employed Full-time	Employed Part-time	Employed Other	No Response	Totals
Married	656	50	100	22	2	830
Widowed	43	6	5	1	2	57
Divorced, Separated, Living apart from husband	3	2	3	-	-	8
Never married	7	18	2	1	1	29
No response	1	-	-	-	9	10
TOTAL	710	76	110	24	14	934

Employment Preferences

The respondents were asked what kind of employment they would prefer to have. Fifty-nine percent of the total sample say that they would prefer part-time employment, and a further 28% would prefer no employment at all. This is shown by Table 2.20.

TABLE 2.20

TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT PREFERRED

Preference	%	Number
No employment	28.3	264
Full-time employment	8.2	77
Part-time employment	59.0	551
Don't know	1.0	9
No response	3.5	33
TOTAL	100.0	934

Comparison of this table on employment preferences with Table 2.18, which shows the existing pattern of employment, is interesting. Eight percent of all respondents prefer full-time employment; the same proportion already have this type of work. Without assuming that these are the same respondents, the comparison suggests that the opportunities for full-time employment are quantitatively sufficient. This is not to assume that the qualitative characterisitcs of this kind of employment are satisfactory. Nor can it be concluded that there is a general sufficiency of work. 5% of the 710 respondents who are not currently working say that the reason for this is the lack of employment opportunities in their area. This question is discussed in Chapter Four, where Table 4.23 summarises the reasons given for not working.

Occupations of the Respondents

The majority of the employed respondents are in occupations with the traditional female sphere of work, although some examples of different kinds of work occur, such as garage and cinema proprietors and blacksmiths. Table 2.21 shows the distribution of occupations.

TABLE 2.21

OCCUPATIONS OF EMPLOYED RESPONDENTS

Type of employment	%	Number
Shop and office	36.2	81
Teaching	19.6	44
Domestic	12.1	27
Nursing	8.0	18
Social and community work	5.4	12
Horticulture	4.9	11
Manual and factory labour	3.1	7
Hairdressing	3.1	7
Farming and farm labour	2.7	6
Proprietors	1.0	2
Technicians	0.4	1
Arts and Handcrafts	0.4	1
Not specified	3.1	7
TOTAL	100.0	224

More than one third of the employed respondents hold shop and office positions, and a further 20% are teachers. Along with domestic work and nursing these occupations include just over three-quarters of the employed respondents.

Employment and Education

The proportion of respondents who are employed increases with the level of education received. This is shown by Table 2.22.

TABLE 2.22

COMPARISON OF SCHOOL EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

Respondents Secondary Schooling	% Not Employed	Employed Full-time	Employed Otherwise	Not Specified	Totals
None	86.3	3.5	10.1	-	99.9
Till and including S.C.	76.7	6.4	16.3	0.6	100.0
Above School Certificate	68.9	14.4	16.3	0.4	100.0 N=934

Thirty-one percent of the women with more than School Certificate are employed, compared to 23% of those with School Certificate, and 14% of those with no secondary-school qualification. Furthermore, a higher proportion of employed women with more than School Certificate are in full-time employment than of those with lesser qualifications.

Further education and training are also associated with taking up employment. The relationship between present employment and such qualifications is shown in Table 20.5 in Appendix B. While 76% of the total sample are not employed, this proportion decreases to 54% of the degree holders, 55% of those with teaching qualifications, 71% of those with nursing qualifications, and 74% of those with trade certificates. The numbers of respondents with particular tertiary qualifications in the various categories of employment are too small to draw significant conclusions.

While the higher work involvement of the better qualified women is notable there is still a large part of such trained people outside the work-force. This suggests that the shortage of such professionals as teachers and nurses in rural areas is a question of inducement and utilisation rather than one of supply.

Respondents' Employment and Husband's Occupation

Grouped according to husband's occupation there are substantial differences in the proportion of women in employment. This is shown in Table 2.23.

TABLE 2.23

COMPARISON OF HUSBAND'S OCCUPATION AND RESPONDENTS' EMPLOYMENT

Husband's Occupation	% Not Employed	Employed Full-time	Employed Otherwise	Not Specified	Totals
Farmer	89.2	2.8	8.0	-	100.0
Farm manager	88.5	7.7	3.8	-	100.0
Sharemilker	100.0	-	-	-	100.0
Farm worker	68.3	14.6	14.6	2.4	99.9
Farmer-employee	45.0	15.0	40.0	-	100.0
Businessman, proprietor	66.7	12.5	20.8	-	100.0
Professional	48.1	18.5	33.3	-	99.9
Other than farm worker, employee	58.5	9.1	32.3	-	99.9
Retired	86.6	-	11.9	1.5	100.0 N=934

Only 11% of the women married to farmers and farm managers are employed. At the other extreme, 52% of the wives of professional men and 41% of the women married to tradesmen and other non-farm manual employees, are employed.

With the exception of the small group of women married to professional men, it seems to be the wives of husbands with lower incomes who are in paid employment. An alternative explanation is that living on a farm, though not necessarily being a farmer's wife, reduces the propensity to take employment away from home. In the case of women married to farm workers both factors seem to occur. Farm workers' incomes are low relative to farmers; in 1971 the median income of farmer-employers was more than twice that of farm employees; that of 'own account' farmers was one-and-a-half times greater (Gill,1976,p.3.33). Therefore, it is expected, on the basis of family income, that farm workers' wives would be more likely to be working than other groups. However, the proportion of employed farm workers' wives (68%) is intermediate between the proportion of farmers' wives and of manual workers' wives. This may be due to involvement in the operation of the farm on which they live; this is considered in Chapter Three.

Reasons for Leaving Employment

Only 3% of the respondents have never been in paid employment. 52% of the women who have discontinued employment give 'marriage' as the reason for this. The reasons for leaving the last job are shown in Table 2.24.

TABLE 2.24

MAIN REASON FOR LEAVING LAST JOB

Reason	%
Now employed	25.6
Never been employed	2.6
Marriage	38.1
Pregnancy/birth of child	7.9
Temporary work only	3.4
Family commitments	1.9
Moved because of husband's work	1.3
Redundancy	1.7
Poor Health	1.3
Retirement, age	1.0
Wanted to stay at home	1.0
To move to country	0.9
Farm commitments	0.7
Travelling distance	0.6
Pressure of work	0.1
Other	0.4
Not specified	11.5
TOTAL	100.0 N=934

AGRICULTURE

Almost two-thirds (610) of the respondents live on farms. 7% of these 'farm' women are living on a farm either because their husband is employed there or as tenants of farm houses.

Farm Ownership

The pattern of ownership of farm property on which respondents live is shown in Table 2.25.

TABLE 2.25

OWNERSHIP OF FARMS

Owner	%	Number
Husband	42.2	257
Joint respondent and husband	20.7	126
Husband's family	10.7	65
Respondent's family	5.7	35
Employer	5.6	34
Unspecified company or partnership	4.4	27
Self	3.0	18
Unspecified family estate	2.5	15
Children	2.5	15
Crown lease	1.0	6
Other	0.5	3
Not specified	1.3	8
TOTAL	100.0	609

In just over four out of ten situations the respondent's husband is the sole owner of the farm. 65% of respondents have no share of the farm on which they live, 28% have some share, either through a partnership with their spouse and/or other relatives, or through a company or a trust agreement. 3% of the women are sole owners of the farms on which they live.

Corporate ownership of the farms covered in this survey is comparatively infrequent; in this sense they are 'family farms'. However, they can hardly be classed as family farms in the sense of husband and wife sharing the formal ownership. This is not to imply that the woman does not contribute to developing and operating a farm unit, nor that she will not receive benefit from successful farming. The contribution made by women to farm operation and decisions is discussed in Chapter Three.

There are a number of differences in the pattern of farm ownership according to the province in which the respondents live. No assumption is made that these differences reflect the situation throughout the whole of the provinces. Table 2.26 shows the distribution of farm ownership patterns by the provinces in which the survey was made.

About 30% of the respondents living on farms in Waikato share in farm ownership compared to 8% of those living on farms in Canterbury. On the other hand, more than half the respondents living on farms in Southland say that their husband is the sole owner; in Waikato only 30% of respondents were in this position. The highest proportion of respondents who are sole owners of the farms on which they live are in Canterbury.

TABLE 2.26

COMPARISON OF FARM OWNERSHIP IN SURVEY REGIONS

	% Of Farms In Each Area Owned By							
	Husband	Joint	Respondent	Respondent and others	Other	Not Specified	Total	N
Southland	51.9	17.3	2.9	12.5	13.5	1.9	100.0	104
Canterbury	47.1	8.3	5.0	2.5	35.4	1.7	100.0	121
Nelson	48.9	17.0	4.5	4.5	25.1	-	100.0	88
Southern Hawke's Bay	37.7	23.4	-	2.6	31.1	5.2	100.0	77
Waikato	30.5	29.8	1.5	6.1	32.2	-	100.0	131
Northland	38.6	29.5	3.4	5.7	22.7	-	99.9	88
TOTAL								609

Other Property and Income

Only 18% of the respondents living on farms own any property other than the home farm; 3% of the respondents own part of their parents' or other relatives' farms and 7% are part-owners of another dwelling or residential section.

409 of the 609 (67%) respondents living on farms obtain all of the family income from the farm operation. 507 respondents are married to farmers, farm managers, or farm workers (this excludes 'hobby farmers'). Despite the non-response of forty-seven women to this question, there is a substantial number of cases where family income is augmented from off-farm sources. The largest part of these are households where either the husband is a part-time farmer and part-time employee off the farm or where the woman is employed away from home. In the former case, it is likely that the woman will be more involved in farm operation.

Size and Type of Farm

Table 2.27 shows the distribution of farms by size; in this table 'farm' includes orchards and other horticultural holdings such as hops and tobacco.

The size distribution in Table 2.27 can be compared to the national distribution of holding size available from the Census of Agriculture (See New Zealand Official Yearbook 1975, p.387).

TABLE 2.27

SIZE OF FARMS

Size	%
10 acres or under (4-ha)	2.0
11 - 50 acres (5 - 20-ha)	8.5
51 - 100 acres (21 - 40-ha)	6.3
101 - 500 acres (41 - 2024-ha)	45.5
500 - 1000 acres (203 - 405-ha)	19.5
1001 - 5000 acres (406 - 202-ha)	16.7
5001 - 10,000 acres (2025 - 4049-ha)	0.3
10,000+ acres (4049 ha+)	0.6
Not specified	0.6
Total	100.0 N=610

The survey under-estimates the proportion of holdings in the size groups up to 199 ha, over-estimates the proportions from 200-2,000 ha, and under-estimates the proportion over this size. The differences are larger than that attributable to sampling variation. There are two possible reasons for this; the first that the sample, for whatever reason, is not representative of the national population of farms. The second, which is part of the first, is that a slightly different basis is used in the Agricultural Census to that used in this survey. The Agricultural Census is taken of 'all holdings used for commercial purposes'; inclusion is decided by the Department of Statistics. In this survey the respondents themselves reported whether or not they lived on a farm; this is a qualitative characteristic evaluated by the person surveyed, not the agency conducting the survey.

Almost three-quarters of the farms in the survey are livestock units. The distribution of farm type is shown in Table 2.28. In this Table the respondents' replies have been classified according to the most important enterprise. For example, included in 'sheep farms' are holdings which also produce some crops or carry some beef cattle, as well as the main sheep enterprise.

TABLE 2.28

TYPE OF FARM

Type	%
Dairy	28.7
Sheep	40.8
Cropping	17.5
Beef	4.4
Pigs and Poultry	0.7
Horticultural	3.4
Other	1.6
Not specified	2.9
TOTAL	100.0 N=610

Farm Labour

Because of variations in the intensity of land use of different types of farming the absolute area of a farm is of little relevance in New Zealand conditions. A better indicator of relative farm size is the amount of labour employed. Only 18% of the farms on which respondents lived do not employ workers for at least some part of the year. The proportion of the farms on which respondents live employing various types of people is shown in Table 2.29.

TABLE 2.29

TYPE OF LABOUR EMPLOYED ON FARMS

Type of Labour	% of Farms in the Survey*
Full-time	33.0
Regular part-time	8.0
Seasonal full-time	23.4
Seasonal part-time	55.9
Other labour	27.0
No labour at all	18.1
	N=610

* Do not total 100 because some farms hire more than one kind of labour.

The categories of Table 2.29 are not mutually exclusive; on some farms labour of all these types is employed. Regular full-time workers are employed on one third of the farms. These 200 farms employ a total of 330 people, which confirms the approximate ratio of one permanent worker to two farmers that was discussed previously. 63% of the farms with regular full-time workers have one such employee, 22% have two and 15% have three or more. One farm employs nine regular full-time workers.

There are large differences in the employment of farm labour between the regions surveyed. The full distribution is shown in Table 20.6 in Appendix B. More than half of the farm respondents in Canterbury live on farms where regular full-time workers are employed, compared to 21 in Nelson. Some 30% of the farm respondents living in Nelson are on farms where there is no labour at all employed, compared to 11% in Southland and 13% in Southern Hawke's Bay. On just under one quarter of the farms covered in Southland regular full-time workers are employed, but two-thirds of such farms employ casual and contract labour. Such differences are undoubtedly related to the type of farming, the combination of crop and stock enterprises, the stage of farm development, and the general level of prosperity, matters that are outside the scope of this study. However, the extent and type of labour employed shows the relative distribution of the size of farm holdings and indicates the extent of variation among the sample.

Type of Farm, Personal and Household Expenditure

Because of the difficulties involved in assessing farm incomes and of comparing these to non-farm ones, it was decided to use subjective assessments of the level of living of respondents. This was done by asking respondents to rate the adequacy of their personal and their household expenditure.

While three-quarters of the respondents, farm and non-farm alike, regard the money they have to spend on themselves as adequate, a slightly higher proportion of farm women (76%) think so, than do non-farm women (73%). The evaluation of the level of personal expenditure by the type of farm on which the respondent lives is shown in Table 2.30.

Table 2.30 shows that the women living on cropping farms are proportionately most satisfied with their level of personal expenditure, those living on 'other' types of holdings proportionately least satisfied. With the exception of this latter group, a greater part of each category of farm women than of all non-farm women see their personal expenditure as adequate.

TABLE 2.30

COMPARISON OF TYPE OF FARMS AND ADEQUACY OF PERSONAL EXPENDITURE

Type of Farm	% Adequate	% Not Adequate	% Not Really Adequate	% Could Spend More If Wanted To	Totals
Dairy	75.9	21.6	1.9	0.6	100.0
Sheep	75.4	21.5	2.6	0.4	99.9
Cropping	81.8	15.2	2.0	1.0	100.0
Beef	73.1	15.4	11.5	-	100.0
Pigs & poultry	75.0	25.0	-	-	100.0
Horticultural	70.0	20.0	10.0	-	100.0
Other	66.7	33.3	-	-	100.0
Average Farm	76.3	19.8	3.0	0.8	99.9
Non-Farm	72.5	22.3	5.1	-	99.9
TOTAL Farm Respondents (excluding no response)					N=563

56% of all respondents, farm and non-farm, say that their households have all the things they need plus some money for extras (see Table 2.31).

TABLE 2.31

COMPARISON OF TYPE OF FARM AND HOUSEHOLD FINANCIAL SITUATION

Type of Farm	% Do Without Things Needed	% Have Things Needed but No Extras	% Have All Needed and Extras	% Many Extras	Don't Know No Response	Totals
Dairy	5.7	30.9	57.1	6.3	-	100.0
Sheep	4.8	29.3	54.2	10.4	1.2	99.9
Cropping	1.9	17.8	64.5	14.0	1.9	100.1
Beef	7.4	25.9	63.0	3.7	-	100.0
Pigs & poultry	-	25.0	75.0	-	-	100.0
Horticultural	-	30.0	60.0	10.0	-	100.0
Other	12.5	50.0	37.5	-	-	100.0
Average Farm	4.4	27.5	57.6	9.7	0.8	100.0
Non-Farm	5.2	30.2	54.6	9.0	1.0	100.0
TOTAL Farm Respondents						N=610

As with the level of personal expenditure, a slightly higher proportion of farm than non-farm women feel they can obtain some extras. Similarly, proportionately more of the farm women living on cropping units than of other categories are in this position.

It is difficult to know whether or not the replies of women living on various kinds of farms reflects the economic position of types of farming at the time of the survey. Both the questions on personal expenditure and on household expenditure asked for the respondent's own evaluation of her personal situation. What is adequate, or more than adequate, for one person may not be so for another. Similarly, the standard of living of persons who say that they can obtain some extras cannot be presumed to be identical. It can be concluded, however, that the financial situation of the majority of respondents did not cause them dissatisfaction.

MOBILITY

Only 11% of the respondents have always lived in their present area. Table 2.32 shows the length of time that the respondents have resided in their present area.

TABLE 2.32

YEARS OF RESIDENCE IN PRESENT AREA

Years In Present Area	%	Cumulative %	
Up to 5 years	22.6	22.6	100.0
6 to 10 years	16.6	39.2	77.4
11 to 20 years	25.2	64.4	60.8
21 to 30 years	15.7	80.1	35.6
31 to 50 years	4.6	84.7	19.9
41 to 50 years	2.3	87.0	15.3
More than 50 years	2.0	89.0	13.0
Always in the area	11.0	100.0	11.0
TOTAL	100.0 N=934		

Twenty-three percent of the respondents have moved to the surveyed areas within the five years prior to the survey. Results from the 1971 Census show that 33% of the total New Zealand population had changed residence at least once between 1966-71. This figure refers to movement between administrative areas, including that within urban sub-divisions. Neither the Census nor the survey figure includes people who have moved within a rural county; similarly, only one shift within the five years is included. While neither figure provides a complete measure of residential mobility, they do show the substantial degree of mobility and suggest that the rural level is slightly lower than that in urban areas.

Previous Area in Which the Respondents had Lived

Table 2.33 shows the previous area in which respondents lived, before moving to one of the survey counties. This is examined by reference to the region in which the respondent now lives.

TABLE 2.33

TYPE OF PREVIOUS AREA BY PRESENT REGION

Previous Area	% South land	% Canter- bury	% Nel- son	% Southern Hawke's Bay	% Wai- kato	% North- land
Always in present area	10.3	10.5	11.3	9.8	9.9	7.6
Rural	36.0	42.3	38.0	48.0	47.5	51.1
Small town	16.0	9.6	16.5	25.0	16.7	15.3
City	26.7	8.7	17.0	8.7	15.4	9.2
Metropolitan	3.0	24.0	11.9	5.3	8.6	12.2
Not specified	8.0	4.9	5.3	3.2	1.9	4.6
TOTAL	100.0 N=164	100.0 N=208	100.0 N=176	100.0 N=93	100.0 N=161	100.0 N=131

The proportion of respondents who have never moved is slightly lower in the three regions of the North Island than in the three of the South Island; differences in the type of previous area are much more substantial. 39% of the respondents now living in one of the three South Island provinces have moved from a rural area, compared to 49% of the respondents now living in one of the three North Island provinces. 31% of the South Island women have moved from a city or metropolitan area, compared to 21% of those in the North Island. This difference is particularly surprising as a greater proportion of the total South Island population lives in rural areas than of the North Island.

Mobility and Farm and Non-farm Residence

There are few differences between the level and direction of mobility of respondents living on and off farms. This is shown by Table 2.34.

TABLE 2.34

COMPARISON OF PREVIOUS PLACE OF RESIDENCE OF FARM AND NON-FARM RESPONDENTS

Description of Previous Area	% Farm	% Non-farm
Always in the area	11.1	8.2
Isolated rural	8.0	10.3
Rural	36.3	31.2
Small town	16.4	14.2
City	12.6	18.8
Metropolitan	11.1	13.3
Not specified	4.5	4.0
TOTAL	99.9 N=604	100.0 N=330

11% of the farm respondents and 8% of the non-farm ones have always lived in their present area. 8% more of the non-farm residents have moved from a city to a metropolitan area.

Reasons for Moving

The most common reason given for moving to the present area is marriage, as indicated in Table 2.35.

The importance of farm ownership and of improving farming opportunities are clearly shown: 17% of respondents give these as their main reasons for moving.

TABLE 2.35

REASON FOR MOVING TO PRESENT AREA

Reason	%
Always in the area	11.0
Marriage	30.6
Husband's Work	13.4
Farm ownership	13.4
Preferred the area, climate, etc.	5.0
Better larger farm	3.7
Came to live in New Zealand/moved with parents	5.9
Own work	5.2
Housing	2.8
Retirement	1.7
Family reasons	2.0
Schooling	1.1
Religious reasons	0.1
Other	3.3
Not specified	0.6
TOTAL	99.8 N=934

Mobility and Age

A slightly higher proportion of the respondents under the age of twenty-five have always lived in their present area than of those over this age. This is presumably because some of these women have not yet had time to move from rural areas, being just out of school. Also, their husbands will tend to be in the early stages of their occupational careers before advance requires a residential change. Table 2.36 shows the relationship between the age of respondents and the areas from which they have moved.

TABLE 2.36

PREVIOUS PLACE OF RESIDENCE BY AGE OF RESPONDENTS

Description of Previous Area	Percentage of Age Group		
	55 or over	25 - 54	Under 25
Always in present area	13.1	8.8	15.0
Isolated rural	14.1	8.1	-
Rural	25.1	37.7	26.7
Small town	18.3	14.6	20.0
City	11.0	15.6	18.3
Metropolitan	14.1	10.9	15.0
Not specified	4.2	4.3	5.0
TOTAL	99.9 N=191	100.0 N=679	100.0 N=60

There are a number of differences in the origins of the three age-groups. Examining the respondents who have moved gives the proportions in Table 2.37.

TABLE 2.37

AGE AND TYPE OF AREA WHERE PREVIOUSLY LIVED

Age Group	% Of Age Group Who Have Moved				N
	From Rural	From Urban	From Small Town	Total	
Under 25	33.3	41.7	25.0	100.0	48
25 - 54	52.7	30.5	16.8	100.0	590
55 and over	44.5	28.5	27.1	101.0	158
TOTAL					796

NOTE: Table omits those who have not specified previous type of area.

Tables 2.36 and 2.37 show that there is not a simple pattern of mobility among the respondents. One of the most notable features is that the proportion of women who have moved from another rural area declines with age. This suggests that moving to urban areas at retirement may be more common among women who have been in rural places for most of their lives, rather than the previously urban women moving back to the cities on retirement.

Movement between regions

Comparison of birthplace with the present region in which the respondents live shows that most geographical mobility is over relatively short distances. Table 2.38 contrasts the respondents' place of birth (by statistical area) with their present province of residence.

TABLE 2.38

COMPARISON OF RESPONDENTS' PLACE OF BIRTH (STATISTICAL AREAS) AND THEIR PRESENT LOCATION (SURVEY REGIONS)

	Where Born In A Given Statistical Area						
Survey Region	South-land	Canter-bury	Nel-son	Hawke's Bay	Bay of Plenty	North-land	Total
Southland	119	10	-	-	4	-	133
Canterbury	5	114	3	3	1	-	126
Nelson	1	17	83	1	2	1	105
Southern Hawke's Bay	2	3	-	50	3	2	60
Waikato	1	5	-	6	67	1	80
Northland	-	1	-	2	9	61	73
TOTAL	128	150	86	62	86	65	577

The diagonal of Table 2.38 includes the cases where the present residence and the birthplace are in the same statistical area. This is the situation for 524 respondents, that is 56% of the whole sample, and 85% of those who were born in one of the statistical areas corresponding with the survey regions (620 respondents).

More of the South Island respondents (88%) are now living in the statistical area where they were born, than of the present North Island respondents (84%). The highest proportion occurs in Canterbury (92%), and the lowest in Nelson (79%).

The cells of the table below and to the left of the diagonal indicate movement northwards. The cells above and to the right, indicate movement southwards. 52 respondents (8% of those born in the statistical areas) have moved northwards, and 31 respondents (5%) have moved southwards. The excess of northwards over southwards movement follows the general population trend in New Zealand.

CHAPTER THREE

FAMILY AND KINSHIP

In any consideration of family and kinship one is usually confronted with statistics showing an increase in the divorce rate, child abuse and juvenile delinquency, all matters which can be used to indicate that family life is becoming less important or at least less pervasive. In an industrialised society which gives high priority to one's economic role, the involvement in family life is often played down. It is ironic that, while on the one hand our society considers the family to be the most important unit in society, on the other hand one's involvement in, and commitment to, family matters is often overlooked. It is less ironic that society has also seen to it that half its members - the men - are committed to the first cause, and the other half - the women - to the other cause.

In this chapter, the involvement of women within the family is explored. Some demographic information on marriage and family is presented, followed by the involvement of rural women in maintaining a household and working on the farm. This is followed by a consideration of decision-making, contact and visiting patterns with kin and, finally, aspects of life that rural women find most satisfying.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

In this section consideration is given to the marital status of rural women, their age of first marriage and that of their husband, their age at the birth of their first child, number of children and composition of the household.

Marital Status

Most women living in the country are married

(90%). Indeed, only 3% of the rural women interviewed had never married. This can be compared with the marital status of women living in urban areas, where 72% are married and 22% have never married. (See Table 2.5).

In Chapter Two mention was made of the fact that a considerable number of urban women move into the country at marriage. Marriage not only brings women back to the country, but it also brings ideas about the urban way of living, for 38% of those who live on farms had been brought up in urban areas. Most of these women had probably moved to the country upon marriage, bringing with them different perspectives on many matters (See Table 30.1 in Appendix B).

Age at First Marriage

Over the last 50 years the age at first marriage of both men and women has been declining. For women, age at first marriage has declined from 25.25 years in 1925 to 21.26 years in 1970. For men, the age has fallen from 28.7 years in 1925 to 23.85 years in 1970. Among rural women and their husbands the same decline in the age of first marriage is evident (see Tables 3.1, 3.2).

Considerable care must be taken in interpreting these tables, for the number of respondents who were married within each five year span is often very small. Consequently it is only possible to point to overall trends, while ignoring any small fluctuations which might have resulted from the particular group of women married in any five year period.

Table 3.1 indicates that the age at first marriage for rural women is lower than that of the national average in almost every instance. This is probably explained by the considerably younger age at first marriage of non-farm women. The age at first marriage of non-farm women over the last fifty years has been as much as four years younger that that of farm women. However, over the last decade the national average and that of both farm and non-farm women is coming closer together.

Trends in the age at first marriage of rural men are not observable, other than an overall lowering of the age. There is no consistent difference between the national average age at first marriage and that of rural men, be they farm or non-farm men. The rural women were asked to give their age at first marriage and that of their husband, but this latter date might have been a second or subsequent marriage for the husband. Some caution in using these statistics is therefore warranted.

TABLE 3.1

AGE OF RURAL WOMEN AT FIRST MARRIAGE

Year of Marriage	All N.Z. Women *	Rural Women		
		Total Sample	Farm	Non-Farm
1911 - 1919		21.5 (6)	23.5 (2)	20.5 (4)
1920 - 1924		22.2 (11)	23.6 (4)	19.5 (7)
1925 - 1929	25.26	22.2 (16)	24.5 (4)	21.5(12)
1930 - 1934	24.92	23.3 (23)	22.0(11)	20.2(14)
1935 - 1939	25.08	23.3 (55)	23.5(34)	22.9(21)
1940 - 1944	24.85	23.6 (58)	25.2(33)	22.6(25)
1945 - 1949	25.13	23.5(116)	23.5(69)	23.5(47)
1950 - 1954	24.19	23.3(134)	23.6(86)	22.8(48)
1955 - 1959	23.79	23.0(117)	23.1(92)	22.5(25)
1960 1964	22.90	22.3(121)	22.1(88)	23.0(33)
1965 - 1969	22.21	21.9(143)	22.1(94)	21.7(49)
1970 - 1974	21.26	21.5 (80)	20.4(56)	20.3(33)

* All Census figures are for the year beginning the 5 year period e.g. 1925, 1930, 1935, 1940.

TABLE 3.2

AGE OF RURAL MEN AT FIRST MARRIAGE

Year of Marriage	All N.Z. Men *	Rural men		
		Total Sample	Farm	Non-Farm
1911 - 1919		27.6 (6)	27.5 (2)	27.7 (4)
1920 - 1924		25.1 (12)	28.2 (4)	26.1 (8)
1925 - 1929	28.7	27.6 (16)	31.0 (4)	26.5(12)
1930 - 1934	26.6	26.7 (23)	25.3(11)	28.0(12)
1935 - 1939	28.1	26.8 (55)	27.0(34)	26.5(21)
1940 - 1944	27.8	26.9 (57)	26.9(32)	26.9(25)
1945 - 1949	28.3	27.0(117)	26.8(70)	27.5(47)
1950 - 1954	27.1	27.7(134)	26.4(85)	25.6(46)
1955 - 1959	26.7	26.2(118)	26.2(93)	26.2(25)
1960 - 1964	26.1	25.8(121)	25.4(88)	27.0(33)
1965 - 1969	25.1	24.6(141)	24.5(95)	24.7(49)
1970 - 1974	23.8	23.9 (90)	24.4(97)	23.0(33)

* See note to Table 3.1 above.

Age at First Birth

Related to the declining age of first marriage has been the lowering of the age of mothers at the birth of their first child. In 1914 the average age of mothers giving birth to their first child was 26.55 years; in 1972 it was 22.99 years.

Among rural women the same lowering in age can be noted as indicated in Table 3.3. Furthermore, the age at first birth to rural mothers over the last fifty years is consistently lower than that of the New Zealand population as a whole. The age of non-farm mothers is lower than that of farm mothers, in most years.

TABLE 3.3

AGE OF RURAL MOTHERS AT FIRST BIRTH

Year of Birth	All N .Z. Mothers*	Rural Women		
		Total Sample	Farm	Non-Farm
1911 - 1919	26.5	20.7 (4)	18.5 (2)	23.0 (2)
1920 - 1924	26.3	24.7 (10)	27.0 (2)	24.1 (8)
1925 - 1929		23.7 (14)	26.4 (5)	22.2 (9)
1930 - 1934	25.9	25.2 (17)	23.0 (3)	25.7 (14)
1935 - 1939		25.0 (45)	25.2 (29)	24.6 (16)
1940 - 1944	25.1	25.0 (48)	26.3 (26)	23.4 (22)
1945 - 1949		24.7 (98)	25.1 (59)	24.2 (39)
1950 - 1954	25.3	24.5 (123)	25.1 (81)	24.7 (40)
1955 - 1959		24.9 (124)	25.1 (90)	23.3 (34)
1960 - 1964	23.6	23.7 (133)	23.5 (99)	25.2 (33)
1965 - 1969		23.3 (137)	21.3 (100)	22.6 (46)
1970 - 1974	23.4	23.2 (96)	24.2 (65)	22.1 (30)

*All Census figures are for the year ending the five year period, e.g. 1919, 1924, 1934, 1944.

Number of Children

92% of the rural women surveyed have children. On average they have more than three children (3.3 children). This average is considerably higher than the average for the whole population, which has been less than three children throughout almost all of this century (in 1916 an average of 3.24 children had been born to each existing marriage, a figure somewhat less than the average children of a parent).

There is no difference in the average number of children born to farm and non-farm women, but when the average number of children of the three age groups is compared it is the youngest age group that has the largest families. For those women age 18-35 years, 3.5 children is the average number of children, whereas for the 36-55 age group it is 3.3 children, and for the over 56 age group 1.4 children (see Table 3.5). The small numbers in the oldest age group necessitate considerable scepticism about the average number of children, but at least with the other two groups a small increase in size of family between the younger age groups can be observed.

TABLE 3.4

NUMBER OF CHILDREN BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE

Residence	Number of mothers	Number of Children	Average number of children
Farm	562	1839	3.27
Non-farm	298	981	3.29
Total	860	2820	3.28

TABLE 3.5

AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN BY AGE OF RESPONDENT

Age Group	Number of mothers	Number of children	Average number of children
18 - 35 years	177	625	3.53
36 - 55 years	645	2131	3.30
56 + years	35	49	1.40
Mother of unspecified age	3	15	
Total	860	2820	3.27

Household Composition

Since the turn of the century the size of New Zealand households has been decreasing, partly because the number of children has been declining and partly because our households tend to exclude employees and relatives beyond our immediate two-generation family. Only 4% of the rural households surveyed include relatives, while the same proportion include employees living there permanently (see Tables 30.2, 30.3 in Appendix B). On the other hand, almost three-quarters of the households (73%) have children living in them; this compares with 77% in the Urban Woman study, the difference being largely the result of some rural children having to board away from home (9% of the women interviewed have children at boarding school; see Table 3.6 for the numbers of children living at home).

The increasing number of handicapped people in our society is manifested in the number who are cared for in the respondent's household. 3% of the rural households include a handicapped child, while 4% include a handicapped adult (the respondent, her husband, a parent or other adult; see Table 30.4 in Appendix B). The total percentage of households which include a handicapped person (6.2%) is almost exactly the percentage found among urban households (6.1%, calculated from data, Urban Women, p21). The Women at Home study, however, found a higher proportion (10%) of their sample cared for a person with special needs at home.

TABLE 3.6

NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING IN HOUSEHOLD OF RESPONDENT

Number of Children Living in Household	Distribution of Respondents Number	%
1	168	18.0
2	212	22.7
3	174	18.6
4	87	9.3
5	28	3.0
6	16	1.7
No children living in household	245	26.2
No response	4	0.4
Total	934	99.9

HELP GIVEN RURAL WOMEN

In this section, consideration is given to the amount of help rural women receive with the housework and in an illness or emergency, and the type of help they get for loneliness and depression.

Help with the Housework

Most rural women are responsible for a household of between 2 and 5 people; 41% of these women have no help in the house, not even a helping hand from their husband or children, if there are any (Table 3.7). Where help is given, more farm women than non-farm women receive help from their children (14% farm women compared with 10% non-farm women), but fewer farm women receive help from their husbands (19% farm women compared with 23% non-farm women; see Table 30.5 in Appendix B).

TABLE 3.7

HELP WITH THE HOUSEWORK

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
No help	383	41.0
Husband	160	17.1
Husband only sometimes	33	3.5
Children	118	12.6
Husband and children	192	20.6
Paid help	19	2.0
Others	9	1.0
Lives with parents	5	0.5
No response	15	1.6
TOTAL	934	99.9

Help in an Illness or Emergency

In an illness or an emergency, a large percentage of the women expect to be given help by their husband, either by himself (36%) or in conjunction with relatives, friends, and neighbours (30%; see Table 3.8). These findings are similar to those of the Urban Women and Women at Home studies, both of which indicated that in an illness or emergency there is still a reliance to call on members of the family.

Among the rural women surveyed, farm women expect more assistance from their husband and relatives than do non-farm women, while the latter depend more on friends, neighbours and paid help (see Table 30.6 in Appendix B).

TABLE 3.8

HELP IN AN ILLNESS OR EMERGENCY

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
No help	16	1.7
Husband	335	35.9
Children	58	6.2
Relatives	137	14.7
Friends and neighbours	45	4.8
Husband and others	276	29.6
Children and others	3	0.3
Others (relatives, friends and neighbours)	21	2.2
Paid help	17	1.8
Don't know	7	0.7
No response	19	2.0
TOTAL	934	99.9

Help for Loneliness and Depression

To the question, 'If you have been lonely or depressed, where did you get help?' 73% of the women replied that they had not been lonely, with approximately the same proportion of farm and non-farm women, and younger, middle-aged and older women stating that they had not been lonely (see Tables 3.9; 30.7, 30.8 in Appendix B). For those who sought help, various people are mentioned including family members and friends and neighbours. Almost 4% of the women use tranquilisers, with the younger women tending to use them more than the older women.

TABLE 3.9

HELP FOR LONELINESS AND DEPRESSION

Response Category	Distribution of Respondents Number	%
Not been lonely	679	73.2
Tranquilisers	34	3.7
Friends and neighbours	33	3.6
Activity - joined clubs etc.	32	3.4
Overcame it herself	31	3.3
Family	30	3.2
No help	19	2.0
Not needed help	14	1.5
Religion, family, friends	13	1.4
Medical help	10	1.1
Visiting	7	0.8
Holiday	2	0.2
No response	24	2.6
TOTAL	934	100.0

WORK ON THE FARM

For those women who live on a farm, over three-quarters (79%) help on the farm, as well as maintaining a household.

TABLE 3.10

DISTRIBUTION OF FARM WOMEN BY FREQUENCY OF WORK ON THE FARM

Response Category	Proportion of Farm Women Number	%
Regularly	132	21.9
As required	269	44.6
Seasonally	40	6.6
As required and paper work	31	5.1
No work on farm	121	20.1
No response	10	1.7
TOTAL	603	100.0

Almost a quarter (24%) of these same women work up to ten hours a week regularly on the farm, while a further 10% work between 10 and 20 hours a week, and 4% work more than 40 hours per week on the farm.

TABLE 3.11

DISTRIBUTION OF FARM WOMEN BY HOURS A WEEK WORKED REGULARLY ON THE FARM

Response Category	Proportion of Farm Women Number	%
Up to 10 hours	144	23.9
11 - 20 hours	61	10.1
21 - 30 hours	39	6.5
31 - 40 hours	18	3.0
Over 40 hours	22	3.6
Hours vary	69	11.5
Hours worked seasonally only	78	12.9
No work on farm	121	20.2
No response	51	8.5
TOTAL	603	100.2

When the kind of work undertaken is considered, over a quarter (29%) of the women are involved in one particular aspect of farming (e.g. stockwork, milking, hops/tobacco, grapes/fruit, paperwork), while 26% are called upon to do 'everything', and a further 19% undertake a number of activities as well as paper work.

Farm women were also asked if they cooked or laundered for any of the employed labour on the farm. Again there is a large proportion of farm women who undertake these duties as well as all their other commitments. About three-quarters (72%) of those who employ labour on the farm do the cooking and/or washing for them.

The variety of work that rural women are expected to carry out is perhaps best illustrated in the words of one of the respondents,

> "The farmer's wife does not have the day to herself. Men come in for meals (approximately two daily). They expect to be served promptly and so the wife's routine is disrupted. So much more is expected of the farmer's wife with stock agents calling, and having to telephone other agents, while all the time looking vainly over the hills for your husband! Then there's the pressure of many local activities, and charities to be involved in, which can be very time consuming. Such things as cleaning the local hall."

TABLE 3.12

DISTRIBUTION OF FARM WOMEN BY KIND OF WORK ON THE FARM

Response Category	Proportion of Farm Women Number	%
Stock	120	19.9
Milking	16	2.6
Hops and tobacco	7	1.1
Grapes and/or fruit	5	0.8
Paper work	26	4.3
Everything	159	26.4
The activities already mentioned and paper work	116	19.2
Other (drives tractor, cooking, handyman)	15	2.4
No work on farm	116	19.2
No response/Not applicable	23	3.8
TOTAL	603	99.7

TABLE 3.13

DISTRIBUTION OF FARM WOMEN ACCORDING TO WHO COOKED AND/OR LAUNDERED FOR LABOUR EMPLOYED ON THE FARM

Response Category	Proportion of Farm Women who employed labour Number	%
Yes	331	72.1
For seasonal workers only	4	0.8
No	109	23.7
No response	15	3.2
TOTAL	459	99.8

DECISION-MAKING

This section is concerned with who makes the decisions related to family expenditure, children's education, day-to-day running of the farm and longer term farm planning.

Family Expenditure

The idea that the male is the head of the household and makes all the decisions does not seem to hold among the rural population of New Zealand. Furthermore the comment from one rural woman that, "as far as decision-making is concerned I make all the household (inside) decisions and my husband makes all the farm (outside) decisions" is not the general situation either. When asked who made the decisions regarding family expenditure, three-quarters (76%) of the women stated that such decisions are made jointly with their husband and children. The women themselves decide such matters in 19% of the cases, while their husbands make the decision in only 3% of the cases.

This level of joint decision-making compared fairly closely with that of respondents in the Women at Home survey where joint decisions concerning 'the important financial decisions in the family' were made in 70% of the households (see Table 3.14). However, whereas the rural women tend to make more individual decisions than their husbands (19% as compared with 3%), in the Women at Home survey the women made fewer individual decisions than their husbands (10% as compared with 19%).

TABLE 3.14

DECISIONS ON FAMILY EXPENDITURE - COMPARISON OF RURAL AND URBAN WOMEN

Response Category	Rural Women Number	Rural Women %	Urban Women (survey 1967/68) %
Joint (with husband and/or children)	701	75.5	66.9
Self	176	19.0	9.0
Husband	26	2.8	18.9
Other	11	1.2	-
No response	14	1.5	1.5
Not applicable	-	-	2.8
TOTAL	928	100	100

Among the rural sample there is a tendency for more joint decisions to be made in the younger age-groups and among farm women, while among the older age-groups and non-farm women more decisions are made by the woman herself (see Tables 30.9, 30.10 in Appendix B).

Children's Education

Decisions relating to children's education are also made jointly by husband and wife in the majority of cases (see Table 3.15). Of those women who had school-age children, 83% stated that decisions relating to their children's education are made jointly by them and their husbands and/or children. As with decisions relating to family expenditure, the decisions on children's education in farm households tend more often to be joint than in non-farm households (87% in farm households compared with 74% in non-farm households). Younger parents of school age children are also more likely to make joint decisions than older parents (see Tables 30.11, 30.12 in Appendix B).

TABLE 3.15

DECISIONS ON CHILDREN"S EDUCATION AMONG RURAL WOMEN WITH SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN

Response Category	Distribution of Respondents Number	%
Joint (with husband and/ or children	604	82.8
Self	72	9.8
Husband	18	2.4
Other	13	1.7
No response	22	3.0
TOTAL	729	99.7

With regard to family expenditure and children's education, then, joint decisions are made in at least three-quarters of the rural households, with farm households and younger households being more likely to make joint decisions than non-farm and older households.

Farm Decisions

Joint decision-making between husband and wife is less prevalent for decisions relating to the farm. However, the part that farmers' wives play depends on the magnitude of the decisions. The husband makes most of the decisions relating to the day-to-day running of the farm (62%), with joint decisions being made in only 14%

of the cases. For decisions relating to a somewhat longer term, such as seasonal planning, the part of the wife in joint decisions increases slightly (15%), while that of the husband decreases by roughly the same small amount (59%). And for decisions relating to even longer term planning - those relating to finance and investment - the wife's part is considerably increased, with an associated decrease in the proportion of decisions the husband makes by himself. 34% of the decisions relating to finances are made jointly by husband and wife, while the husband is responsible for only 39% of the decisions (see Tables 3.16, 3.17, 3.18).

TABLE 3.16

DECISIONS OF FARM RESIDENTS ON THE DAY TO DAY RUNNING OF THE FARM

Response Category	Distribution of Farm Residents	
	Number	%
Joint (husband and wife)	81	13.5
Self	11	1.8
Husband	371	61.9
Husband's employer	12	2.0
Husband and others	53	8.8
Other	41	6.8
No response	30	5.0
TOTAL	599	99.8

TABLE 3.17

DECISIONS OF FARM RESIDENTS ON SEASONAL PLANNING

Response Category	Distribution of Farm Residents	
	Number	%
Joint (husband and wife)	89	14.8
Self	10	1.6
Husband	355	59.2
Husband's employer	14	2.3
Husband and others	59	9.8
Other	40	6.6
No response	32	5.3
TOTAL	599	99.6

TABLE 3.18

DECISIONS OF FARM RESIDENTS ON FARM FINANCE AND INVESTMENT

Response Category	Distribution of Farm Residents Number	%
Joint (husband and wife)	203	33.9
Self	9	1.5
Husband	233	38.9
Husband's employer	27	4.5
Husband and others	57	9.5
Other	36	6.0
No response	33	5.5
TOTAL	598	99.8

When the age of the farm women is considered, the middle-aged group tend to be more involved in joint decisions than the other two age groups (see Tables 30.13, 30.14, 30.15 in Appendix B). This applies to all three types of farm decisions. However, in this same age-group, the husband tends to be solely responsible for more decisions than in the other two age groups. Thus, the middle-aged group seems to be polarised, particularly over finance and investment, between those households where decisions are made jointly between husband and wife and those households where the decisions are made solely by the husband. Other means of decision-making are far less common in this age-group than in the others.

It seems, then, that decisions relating to household matters (family expenditure and children's education) are likely to be made jointly by the husband and wife or by the entire family in at least three-quarters of the homes surveyed. With regard to matters relating to the farm, however, the farmer's wife takes a considerably less active role in decision-making. Nevertheless, it seems that the longer the term of planning the more active a part the wife takes in decision-making.

RELATIVES

It has often been suggested that in an industrialised society kinship ties tend to decline, that the amount of contact individuals have with relatives is limited and that the amount of visiting decreases. This argument would gain little support from New Zealand's rural population, for extensive kinship ties were found in this survey.

TABLE 3.19

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH GROWN CHILDREN BY CONTACT WITH GROWN CHILDREN

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents with Grown Children Number	%
Regular	351	86.9
Occasional	28	6.9
Hardly ever	1	0.2
Not able to generalise about amount of contact	24	5.9
TOTAL	404	99.9

Contact with Relatives

From Table 3.19 it can be seen that, of those who have grown children, 87% of the women maintain regular contact with them. This figure could be even higher, for 24 women were unable to generalise about the amount of contact they had with their children.

The amount of contact the women have with their parents and with their husband's parents is also high, although there is a noticeable difference in the amount with the two sets of parents: 83% of the women have regular contact with their own parents, while 73% have regular contact with their husbands' parents (see Table 3.20, 3.21).

TABLE 3.20

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH OWN PARENTS BY CONTACT WITH OWN PARENTS

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents with Own Parent or Parents Number	%
Regular	518	83.2
Occasional	89	14.3
Hardly ever	10	1.6
No contact	5	0.8
TOTAL	622	99.9

TABLE 3.21

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS WITH HUSBAND'S PARENTS BY CONTACT WITH HUSBAND'S PARENTS

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents With Husband's Parent or Parents	
	Number	%
Regular	392	72.6
Occasional	113	20.9
Hardly ever	30	5.6
No contact	5	0.9
TOTAL	540	100.0

There is obviously a clear gradation in the amount of contact, with the greatest contact being between the respondent and her children, and the least contact being between the respondent and her husband's parents. The greater contact with the respondent's parents than with the husband's parents would tend to suggest that it is considered part of a woman's role to maintain contact with kin.

Visits with Relatives

Contact with kin may be high, but contact through visiting appears to be less frequent. Only 47% of the rural women interviewed had been visited in the preceding week by relatives (including children), while 43% had visited relatives in the same week (see Tables 3.22, 3.23; 30.16, 30.17 in Appendix B). The somewhat lower figure relating to visiting patterns as opposed to contact in general may be partially explained methodologically in not taking into account the availability of relatives. Respondents were not asked if they had relatives living close enough to visit, and indeed several women commented on the fact that they would like to visit relatives more often if it wasn't for the distance. For instance, one woman who visited her parents regularly still made the comment that she "would like to be able to afford to visit more often". The high level of contact with kin discussed in the preceding section must therefore be maintained to a large extent through letters and telephone calls.

TABLE 3.22

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY RESPONDENT'S VISITS TO CHILDREN AND RELATIVES IN LAST WEEK

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
Up to 20 visits made in last week	358	38.3
Visited but number of visits not specified	44	4.7
No one	522	55.8
Sick/No response	10	1.0
TOTAL	934	99.8

TABLE 3.23

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY CHILDREN AND RELATIVES' VISITS TO RESPONDENT IN LAST WEEK

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
Up to 20 visits made in last week	359	38.4
Visited but number of visits not specified	80	8.6
No one	488	52.2
Sick/ No response	7	0.7
TOTAL	934	99.9

CHAPTER FOUR

FACILITIES AND PROBLEMS IN THE RURAL AREAS

Having now looked at the nature of the rural woman and examined her family life, this chapter discusses the facilities and services available in the countryside and the major problems she confronts. It starts with her own view of the problems and then analyses the various aspects of the actual situation in terms of isolation, schooling, and work training opportunities.

QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE: THE SUBJECTIVE VIEW

To get an idea of whether or not the rural women consider themselves disadvantaged in comparison with women in urban centres, we asked the following question: "Do you consider the quality of life in rural areas to be better or worse than in urban areas?" More than eight out of ten considered the quality of rural life to be better. One sixth considered them about the same or were unable to say which was better, and only twelve women (1.3%) considered rural life to be worse than life in cities. This indicates a high level of satisfaction with the rural situation, as indicated in Table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1

OPINIONS ON QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE

Percentage of answers to Question 32: Do you consider the quality of life in rural areas to be better or worse than in urban areas?

ANSWER	% of Total	% of Farm Residents	% of Non-farm Residents
Better than urban	82.9	84.8	79.5
Same or don't know	15.8	14.4	18.3
Worse than urban	1.3	0.8	2.1
	100.0	100.0	99.9
	N=926	N=598	N=327

It can also be seen from the table that an even higher proportion of the farm women feel positively about life in the countryside than of rural women in general.

We asked the reasons for their positive evaluation of the quality of rural life and discovered that the largest number of reasons relate to nature, the healthy life, clean air, and space. The next most common set of reasons was community life and the friendliness of neighbours, although this was less important for farm women than for the others. Farm women considered the advantages for bringing up children as the second most important reason for preferring the countryside. Another popular reason was the measure of individual freedom women enjoyed in the rural areas, a factor that was important to more farm women than to the others. The lack of commercialism was more important to non-farm women, while a better family life concerned many more farm women than non-farm women.

TABLE 4.2

REASONS WHY QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE IS BETTER THAN URBAN

Percentage of answers to Question 33: Why do you think the quality of rural life is better?

CATEGORY OF REASON	% of Total	% of Farm Residents
1 Nature: space, clean air	31.4	30.2
2 Community and neighbourliness	16.5	13.8
3 Better for bringing up children	15.2	16.4
4 Less commercialism	12.5	12.0
5 More individual freedom	12.4	13.6
6 Family life better	7.3	9.1
7 More activity, less boredom	1.6	1.6
8 Don't know, unspecified	3.1	3.3
	100.0 N=769	100.0 N=507

In an attempt to discover what particular aspects of rural life cause women to prefer it, we have tried to relate this preference to various other characteristics of the sample. For instance, a slightly higher proportion (83%) of married than single women (77%) prefer the rural life, although the eight separated or divorced women all considered that rural life is better. (See Table 40.1 in Appendix B) Those who thought rural life better than urban had an average of 3.1 children each, while those who thought it worse averaged 2.6 children. Marriage and children are clearly positively correlated with the view that rural life is of better quality than urban.

From the point of view of religion, it is interesting that a higher proportion of Anglicans (84%) than of Roman Catholics (78%) preferred rural life, with the Presbyterians and Methodists falling between. The members of other religious denominations were too few to provide reliable percentages on this question, but it is interesting that the most positive reaction was found among those who claimed no religion (88%). The Mormons were the least committed, one third of them not stating a preference. (See Table 40.2 in Appendix B).

There is a slight relationship between a woman's area of origin and her preference for rural life; more of those who came originally from rural areas than of those who came from towns and cities consider the quality of rural life to be better than urban. Length of residence in the area makes no difference to their preference, however.

Age is a factor in satisfaction with rural life. Older women tended to rate rural life lower than did middle-aged or younger women. Table 4.3 divides the women into three age groupings: 18-35, 36-55 and over 55; it can be seen from this table that the most satisfied group are the middle-aged, those between thirty-six and fifty-five, although the differences between them and the younger women are not statistically significant.

TABLE 4.3

OPINIONS ON QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE BY AGE CATEGORIES

	Age Category		
Opinion of rural life	18-35	36-55	Over 55
Better than urban life	83.6	84.4	77.3
Don't know or about the same	14.8	15.1	19.8
Worse than urban life	1.6	0.5	2.9
	100.0 N=318	100.0 N=430	100.0 N=172

A number of factors that one might think affected this question were found to bear no relation to it. The frequency of visits to city or town, for instance, was not related to preference for rural life, nor was the availability of transport, distance to nearest neighbour, or whether or not the woman had help with housework.

There is a positive relationship between the number of social contacts and a preference for rural life, for if we look at the number of people visited by the respondent, the number of relatives with whom she is in regular contact, and the number of her friends, in each case those who consider rural life better than urban have a larger number on average than those who are negative about rural life. Only in the case of the number of people visiting the respondent do those with a negative orientation to rural life have a higher number of visits. Table 4.4 summarises these statistics.

Preference for the quality of rural life is most clearly related to two other factors, namely watching television and the amount of time spent doing community work. Those who consider rural life of worse quality than urban watch two and a half hours more television each week on average than do those who consider rural life better. Half of those who don't like the rural life watch television twenty-one or more hours per week, while less than a quarter of those who prefer rural life spend that much time in front of the box. (See Table 40.4 in Appendix B). In this case, dissatisfaction with life probably causes individuals to spend more time watching television; it is highly unlikely that watching more television causes individuals to disparage rural life.

TABLE 4.4

NUMBER OF SOCIAL CONTACTS BY PREFERENCE FOR RURAL LIFE

	Consider quality of rural life	
Average number of:	Better	Worse
People visited by respondent in week	2.28	1.50
People visited respondent in week	4.35	6.00
Relatives in regular contact	7.00	5.50
Friends	7.25	5.20

The relationship between participation in community activities and preferring rural life is more complicated. There is no relationship with whether or not they undertake community work, but it is related to the amount of time they devote to community work. Those who prefer rural life spend an average of four hours a week in community work, those who have no preference average just under two and a half hours, while those who prefer urban life spend only two hours per week in community work. 85% of the sample participate in community work and/or associations, but one third of those who do not prefer rural life participate in neither community work nor associations. Clearly, those who do not like living in the countryside are not as interested in their community.

Among farm women, more of those who do some work on the farm prefer rural life than of those who do not work on the farm; furthermore, those who work regularly are more positive than are those who work only seasonally or "as required". The relationship between wages for farm work and positive attitudes towards rural life is more complicated, as indicated in Table 40.6 (Appendix B). The type of farm on which a woman lives makes some difference in her attitude on this question; if she lives on a dairy farm she is more likely to feel positively about rural life than if she lives on a sheep farm.

Before leaving the question of subjective feelings about life in the country, it is worthwhile to consider briefly the reasons why some women consider rural life to be worse than life in the city. Although there were only twelve women with this opinion in the sample, their reasons perhaps provide an indication of why women leave the country for the cities, and they are therefore worth mentioning.

Of the twenty-three reasons given by these twelve women, lack of amenities was the most important, with lack of employment opportunities next. The poor quality of rural family life (children having to leave home to school, for instance) was third, while isolation was least important. Table 4.5 tabulates these reasons.

It is of course impossible to predict from such a small number the proportional significance of these reasons among the total population of discontented rural women in New Zealand. (Our survey indicates they might total about two thousand). Nevertheless, they provide an indication that the major reasons lie in areas that are amenable to improvement through policy decisions on amenities and employment opportunities in the rural areas. Reasons inherent in rural life, such as the nature of the family unit or the psychological problems of isolation, are far less significant for these women.

TABLE 4.5

REASONS WHY QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE IS WORSE THAN URBAN

(Number of answers to question 33: Why do you think the quality of rural life is worse?)

(NOTE: Some women gave more than one reason; this table represents twelve women in all)

CATEGORY OF REASON	Total Sample	Farm Residents
Lack of amenities	9	4
Lack of work opportunities	7	3
Poor quality of family life	4	4
Isolation	3	1
	23	12

On the other hand, if we look at the problem of improving the lives of rural women as a whole, a more relevant question to analyse is Question 143, "How could your life be more satisfying?" Half the women replied that their life was satisfying and mentioned no improvements they would like. The other half, however, indicated a number of factors that would make them happier; these are summarised in Table 4.6.

It can be seen from Table 4.6 that, although the dearth of amenities is very important to women who are unhappy about living in the countryside, it is almost insignificant to rural women as a whole. Far more important to them would be improvements in their standard of living, in the amount of leisure time, and in their family life. It is significant that the three most important factors mentioned are not amenable to improvement by policy decisions. Changes in rural policy could, however, improve the availability of cultural activities and employment opportunities, the fourth and fifth most important reasons.

TABLE 4.6

HOW LIFE COULD BE MORE SATISFYING

	ASPECT MENTIONED	% Total Sample*	% Farm Residents*
✓	More money or material possessions	17.5	20.2
✓	More leisure time	11.1	12.3
—	Better family relations	9.5	9.3
✗	More cultural activities available	8.6	8.0
	More voluntary and paid employment opportunities	5.2	5.3
✗	Less isolation	3.8	3.3
✓	Travel	2.4	2.8
✗	Improve self	2.0	1.8
✗	Be able to drive, own car	1.9	1.0
✗	Change or improve husband	0.6	0.3
✗	Better amenities	0.5	0.3
✗	Freedom from community pressures	0.4	0.3
	Other	0.9	0.5
		N = 934	N = 603

(*NOTE: Percentages do not add up to 100 because more than one aspect was mentioned by some women and 48.8% of the women interviewed mentioned no aspects that could be improved.)

ISOLATION: OBJECTIVE INDICES

The subjective problems of isolation, namely loneliness and depression, have been discussed in Chapter Three of this report. We have just seen that it is not considered a problem of such major importance as to cause a woman to value rural life negatively. Nevertheless, geographic isolation lies at the heart of other problems, such as transport, that will be examined in this section.

One in seven of the rural women cannot drive, although the figure among farm women is one in ten. Almost all women (98.7%) have some form of transportation available, however, so the major problem with regard to transport is the time involved rather than its availability. These figures compare favourably with those from the national survey of women undertaken by the New Zealand Federation of University Women, which found that about one tenth of the women in their sample had problems regarding the availability of transportation, (Women at Home, p.9, Table 1.1). The comparison cannot be made accurately, however, for in that survey the women were asked if they had transportation problems, while in ours they were asked if transportation was available.

It takes the average rural woman almost half an hour travelling time to get her groceries. Travelling time for those on farms is, of course, somewhat higher than this average; almost half (47.5%) of the farm women take over half an hour, while only 31% of non-farm rural women take that long to travel to and from their grocery store. Only 15% of farm women shop more than once a week for groceries, while the comparable figure for non-farm rural women is 26%; unfortunately, no comparable statistics are available for urban women. The distances to church represent no more hardship than distances to grocery shops. 93% of the sample takes less than half an hour to travel to and from church.

TABLE 4.7

TRAVELLING TIME TO SHOP, CHURCH, TOWN AND CITY (IN MINUTES)

Average travelling time (both ways)	Total Sample	Farm Women
Grocery shop	24.3	27.3
Church	15.0	16.3
Nearest town	22.6	24.8
Large city	69.3	68.7

Distances to medical facilities, however, may present somewhat more of a problem for rural women, and several remarked on it. Although half of the sample travel less than ten miles to a doctor (farm and non-farm about the same), one tenth of the farm women had to go more than twenty-five miles to see a doctor, while 4% of non-farm women had to go that far. On average, rural women travel about eleven miles to their doctors, farm women a little over twelve and non-farm women just under eight.

TABLE 4.8

DISTANCE TO MEDICAL FACILITIES AND SCHOOLS

Average distance (miles) to:	Total Sample	Farm Residents
Schools:		
Primary	3.49	4.45
Intermediate	14.85	18.70
Secondary	10.57	12.24
Medical facilities:		
Doctor	10.71	12.36
Hospital	31.80	30.25
Maternity Clinic	14.72	15.39
Dentist	23.91	23.64
Veterinary	13.14	13.98

Hospitals are even further away, 32 miles for the average rural woman. (See Table 4.8) Over three quarters of the rural women had a registered nurse available in their area, however, and lack of health facilities was mentioned as a problem by only five (less than 1%) of the women interviewed.

Communication is also not a serious problem for most rural women. Only 2.6% of the women were not on the telephone (1.5% of farm women), and 90% enjoyed a daily mail delivery (the same for farm women), although less than half (40%) received their mail directly to their homes, the remainder having to collect it at distances ranging from one hundred yards to over twenty miles.

Rural women apparently visit towns and larger urban centres without much hindrance, and none mentioned this as a problem, although six (0.6%) included urban visits among the most satisfying aspects of their lives. Half of them live less than a half hour's drive from their nearest town (44% of farm women), and most (62%) visit it weekly or more often (42% of farm women). Even the nearest large city deserves a visit at least once a month by most rural women (60%), although farm women visit the city less frequently than non-farm women, farm women every fourteen days, non-farm women every twelve days on average. (See Table 40.8 in Appendix B).

We may conclude from these figures that physical isolation is not a serious problem for rural women, and it is therefore not surprising that few women have remarked on it. When asked how their life could be more satisfying, only 3.8% mentioned factors related to their isolation, other problems figuring far more prominently. Objectively, the problems of schooling and employment opportunities are more serious, and they deserve detailed consideration in the next two sections.

SCHOOLING

Schooling of children presents many problems for rural women, mainly because of the great distances that must be travelled, but also because of the relative lack of educational facilities. Despite these problems, very few women opt for correspondence lessons at home for their children, and in our sample there were only three such women, although another one had a child taking special secondary school courses by correspondence in addition to attending the local high school. This number is far too small to allow us to make any generalisations about experience with correspondence education in the rural areas. This aspect of education cannot therefore be treated in this study, and those interested should look elsewhere for information.

Pre-schooling

One quarter of the women who answered the question reported that there were no pre-school facilities in their area. Although this may seem a small number, it represents over twenty thousand rural families in New Zealand who are deprived of the option of kindergartens or playcentres for their children. In his study of pre-schooling, David Barney reports that in 1972 there were only 343 playcentres and no kindergartens in the rural areas and that there were 1,568 rural districts without pre-schools (Barney, Who Gets to Pre-School?, p. 290 Table A8; p. 39 Table 2).

In all, one tenth of the women actually have children in pre-schools. One quarter of these are attending pre-schools outside their own areas. This means that even for pre-schoolers some parents are involved in problems of transporting their children to and from school. One woman remarked that the nearest pre-school was thirty miles away, and since she could not drive, it was impossible for her child to attend. Another woman two miles from a playcentre pointed out that it is still too far to walk with small children. This survey corroborates Barney's finding that there is a need for more rural pre-schools in New Zealand.

Of course, the problem of lack of pre-school facilities is not distributed evenly throughout the country, as Table 4.9 indicates. It is far less serious in Canterbury or Waikato than in Southland or Nelson, and it is most serious in Southern Hawke's Bay. One woman in Canterbury told her interviewer that the pre-schools were "very adequate", while several in Nelson and Southern Hawke's Bay said they would like a playcentre in their area. The provincial figures hide the fact, however, that there may be great disparities between counties in the same province.

TABLE 4.9

AVAILABILITY OF PRE-SCHOOL FACILITIES BY REGION

(Percentages of those answering question 80: Are there pre-school facilities in your area?)

REGION	YES	NO	DON'T KNOW	N
Waikato	87.5	11.6	0.9	112
Canterbury	85.1	14.9	0.0	114
Northland	75.0	25.0	0.0	83
Southland	66.3	32.7	0.9	107
Nelson	66.1	33.0	0.9	109
S. Hawke's Bay	57.8	42.2	0.0	64
Total Sample	74.3	25.2	0.5	589

The distribution among the Canterbury counties surveyed is about even, but the discrepancy between Otorohanga and Waikato is considerable, and that between Hobson (where 44% of those answering indicated a lack of pre-schools) and Whangarei (where the figure was only 7%) is enormous. Of the counties surveyed, Hobson manifests the least favourable pre-school situation, followed by Dannevirke, the best being in Waikato and Whangarei. (See Table 40.7 in Appendix B). One woman in Otorohanga said there was a waiting list of 12-18 months for her local playcentre. Another reported that one playcentre in Otorohanga was closed because the Government refused to provide a hall.

Primary Schooling

Almost half of the women in the survey have children in primary school. Ninety-six percent of these women send their children to state schools, including special schools for handicapped children, only four percent to private schools. Farm families send about the same proportions of children to state and private primary schools as do other rural families. Private schooling is discussed in a later section.

TABLE 4.10

PROPORTIONS OF CHILDREN IN STATE AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

(Percentages of women with children in primary or secondary schools)

Kind of School	Number	Percent of Total	Percent of those Specifying
Primary School:			
State	390	92.9	94.9
Private	14	3.3	3.4
Both	3	0.7	0.7
Handicapped	4	1.0	1.0
Not specified	9	2.1	-
Total Primary School	420	100.0	100.0
Secondary School:			
State	224	78.3	82.0
Private	45	15.7	16.5
Both	4	1.4	1.5
Not specified	13	4.5	-
Total Secondary School	286	99.9	100.0

A major problem with primary schooling in the rural areas is the amount of time spent travelling to and from school. In this survey the average travelling time for primary pupils is 41 minutes (47 for children on farms), although some children spend up to two hours and one child as much as three and a half hours each day. Almost thirty percent of the primary pupils spend over an hour a day in travel, and the comparable figure for children on farms is thirty-six percent. Table 4.11 indicates the distribution of children between different travelling times.

Two thirds of rural primary school children take the bus to school (almost four fifths of farm children). Another quarter are close enough to walk or cycle to school, leaving about one tenth who must be transported by private car (in one case a launch) or motorcycle.

TABLE 4.11

DAILY TRAVEL TIME TO PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Primary School Cumulative		Primary School Percent	Round Trip Travel Time	Secondary School Percent	Secondary School Cumulative	
31.0	100.0	31.0	Up to 15 mins	15.3	15.3	100.0
56.3	69.0	25.3	30 minutes	17.2	32.5	84.7
71.0	43.7	14.7	45 minutes	12.8	45.3	67.5
85.7	29.0	14.7	1 hour	21.2	66.5	54.7
94.7	14.3	9.0	1¼-1½ hours	18.7	85.2	33.5
99.0	5.3	4.3	2 hours	11.8	97.0	14.8
			3 hours	1.0	100.0	1.0
100.0	0.2	0.2	3½ hours			
		100.0 N=368		100.0 N=203		

Many of the comments about education made by the women to their interviewers relate to the difficulties of transport. Most of these comments reflect shortcomings in the school bus service in their area, mainly because their children have to leave home so early in the morning and return home so late in the afternoon. Typical of these comments are those of one woman in Canterbury, who pointed out that although the school is only three miles away, her children leave home to catch the bus at 7.45 each morning and do not return home until 4.15 in the afternoon. For some, the bus service provides only part of the journey, for they must transport their children to the nearest bus stop, in one case ten miles away from the house.

TABLE 4.12

MEANS OF TRANSPORT TO PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

(Percentages of respondents specifying means of transport to primary or secondary schools.)

Means of Transport	Primary Schools Total Sample	Primary Schools Farm Children	Secondary Schools Total	Secondary Schools Farm
Bus	67.5	78.6	86.5	92.4
Walk or cycle	23.7	12.6	11.1	5.3
Private car or motorcycle	8.8	8.8	2.4	2.3
	100.0 N=375	100.0 N=262	100.0 N=207	100.0 N=131

This is a more serious problem for families on farms, of course. In another case a young child must walk half a mile to reach a bus stop for a two-mile bus ride. One woman spends ninety minutes each day driving her children to the bus stop, but she prefers this to supervising correspondence lessons at home.

The distance to primary schools makes it difficult for rural children to participate in activities out of school hours. If children must travel by bus, they cannot stay at the school for music lessons, sports practices, or other activities provided after hours, and any parents determined that their children shall not miss out on these activities must therefore involve themselves in the extra time, effort and expense of driving them to and from school.

Of the 420 women with children in primary school, one third (142) indicated that it is difficult for their children to participate in extra-curricular activities. The problem is more serious for farm families, forty-one percent of whom reported difficulties in this regard. Almost all said the major difficulty is transport. While urban women might experience the same problems, the amount of time they spend driving their children to school activities is less because the distances are much shorter. It is true, of course, that urban women spend much time as chauffeurs for their children, but usually this is because of the many activities available in cities that have nothing to do with the schools. If rural women wish to provide these extra activities for their children, they must drive even further to the nearest town or city. This aspect of extra education we did not investigate in this study.

One of the solutions to the problem of school transport is to send children away to board, either in boarding schools or in some other arrangement near the school. The problems of boarding are analysed in a later section of this chapter.

From the remarks made by the respondents, one gathers that there is some concern that small rural primary schools are being amalgamated gradually into larger schools, thus increasing their distance from the average pupil. Some expressed a preference for smaller schools in any case, and one woman in Dannevirke said that "parents in areas where country schools have been closed are concerned for the future of these schools; is there any hope of re-opening these small schools if another generation has need for them?" It was pointed out to us that rural areas in that region (and probably in others as well), because of farm ownership patterns, go through cycles which alter the numbers of children attending a particular school, so that the school roll is subject to major fluctuations over the years; if a school is closed at the bottom of a cycle, it may be difficult to have it re-opened when the area is once more full of young children. On the other hand, women are of course aware of the priorities involved, and one woman in Golden Bay stated a preference for amalgamating the small primary schools in order to permit the establishment of a local high school for the area.

Secondary Schooling

About one third of the women interviewed have children in secondary schools. As indicated in Table 4.10 above, almost eighty-four percent of these send children to state schools, somewhat lower than the proportion for primary pupils. Eighteen percent send children to private secondary schools. (These percentages total more than 100 because some families have children in both kinds of schools.) The reasons for sending children to private schools are analysed in a later section of this chapter.

Travelling time for rural secondary pupils is even higher than for primary pupils, as might be expected because of the smaller number of secondary schools. The average travelling time to and from secondary school is just under one hour (59 minutes), while for farm children it is one hour and five minutes. One in seven (almost 15%) spends two or more hours travelling each day, the comparable proportion for farm children being 18%. See Table 4.11 above.

Eighty-six percent of rural secondary pupils travel to school by bus, and of those who live on farms, 92% travel by bus, as indicated in Table 4.12 above. Just over one tenth can walk or cycle to school, leaving about 2½% who use private transport. Of course, some who use the bus must cycle or be driven to the nearest bus stop as well. The cost of bus transport is discussed in the next section.

As with the primary, secondary pupils are also disadvantaged when it comes to extra-curricular activities at school. Not only are their needs greater for such activities, but they must travel further than their younger brothers and sisters. Two fifths of the women (42.5%) reported difficulties in this regard, very nearly half of the farm women (49.3%) included. Although two indicated that the difficulty was lack of activities, the remainder (98% of those reporting difficulties) indicated that the problem was one of transport. Although not typical, the problem is exemplified by the woman who takes three hours to drive her son to and from the rugby ground for each match.

Cost of School Bus

The amount of time children spend travelling to school is only one of the problems for rural women. Another is the expense of transport. Of the 366 women who send children to school in the bus (both primary and secondary), almost ten percent had to pay from their own pockets last year, despite the subsidies.

For the rural women who pay for the school bus, the average cost is $32 per year ($36 for farm women), and some pay as high as $100. Table 4.13 summarises these figures.

TABLE 4.13

COST OF SCHOOL BUS

Cost Category	Total Sample Number	Total Sample Percentage	Farm Families Number	Farm Families Percentage
Nil	332	90.7	252	91.3
\$1 - \$14	14	3.8	10	3.6
\$15 - \$29	5	1.4	3	1.1
\$30 - \$59	8	2.2	4	1.4
\$60 - \$89	2	0.5	2	0.7
\$90 - \$100	5	1.4	5	1.8
Totals	366	100.0	276	100.0

Boarding

Eighty-one families in the sample have children boarding away from home in order to attend school; seventy of these are farm families. This represents one seventh (15%) of those with school-age children, one fifth of farm families with school-age children. Clearly, boarding is a common practice among rural families, and particularly among farm families.

Of these eighty-one families, fifty-two have primary school children boarding, and seventy-five have secondary school children boarding.

From Table 4.14 it can be seen that seventy-five families have children boarding full time, which means that the children return home only for school holidays and the occasional weekend during term. Twenty families have children boarding during the week and returning home for weekends. (The figures add up to more than eighty-one because some families have children in both situations.)

Most of these children are in boarding schools, with private school children outnumbering those boarding in state schools by about ten to seven. A few are boarding with relatives or through private arrangements.

Satisfaction with state hostels for secondary-school boarders varied between the regions surveyed. Several women commented on the inadequacy of hostel arrangements for girls going to Christchurch for secondary schooling, and it was suggested by one woman that there is a need for a hostel at Te Awamutu, but elsewhere there were no comments on hostels.

TABLE 4.14

BOARDING ARRANGEMENTS OF CHILDREN FROM RURAL HOMES

(Percentage of women with children in school)

Type of Boarding	Total Sample Number	Total Sample Percentage	Farm Residents Number	Farm Residents Percentage
Women with children boarding	81	15.3	70	20.5
Boarding full time	75	14.2	64	18.7
Boarding weekdays	20	3.8	17	5.0
Boarding at state school	35	6.6	31	9.1
Boarding at private school	53	10.0	44	12.9
Boarding with relatives	3	0.6	2	0.6
Boarding privately	6	1.1	4	1.2
Other boarding arrangements	5	0.9	4	1.2
		N=530		N=342

NOTE: Percentages total more than 100 because some women have children in more than one type of boarding arrangement.

When asked why their children were boarding, almost half the women (36 of the 81) indicated that it was because of the difficulties of distance and transportation involved in sending them to the local school. As one woman put it, "I would like to have my children at home because I prefer close family ties, but I prefer hostel life for them to long-distance travel every day."

The next most frequently mentioned reason for sending children away to board was that the local school lacked particular courses, special facilities, or other aspects of education that their children needed. For instance, one woman wanted her child to study Maori, which was not offered in the local highschool. Several simply said that the local school was inadequate or that the standard of education was low. One pointed out that the subjects offered in the local district highschool depended entirely upon who was the resident teacher each year.

Another set of reasons for sending children away to board related to the social development of the children, for instance the advantages of mixing with other kinds of people, their need for extra-curricular activities, or the desire of the parents for their sons to go to the schools their fathers attended.

A fourth set of reasons for boarding were religious. It can be seen from Table 4.15 that roughly the same proportions of farm women gave these reasons as did rural women in general.

TABLE 4.15

REASONS FOR CHILDREN BOARDING

Category of Reasons:	Total Sample		Farm Women	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Distance and transport problems	36	45	34	49
Better educational facilities	31	38	26	37
Social reasons	8	10	4	6
Religious reasons	6	7	6	8
Totals	81	100	70	100

Private Schooling

Of the women with children in primary school, about one in twenty sends some children to private schools. In the total primary school population of New Zealand, just under ten percent are in private schools, so the rural figure is considerably lower. This is probably because of the difficulty of sending children as day pupils to private schools from the rural areas, since most private schools are in the cities. There is no reason whatever to believe that rural children's parents are less favourably inclined toward private education than their urban counterparts. Indeed, the figures for enrolment in private secondary schools among the sample are higher than the national average, indicating substantial support for the principle of private education, and several women remarked to their interviewers that they favoured government subsidies for private schools. About the same proportion of children from farms as from the general rural population attend private primary schools, but there is a marked discrepancy between farm and non-farm children when it comes to private secondary education: more than one fifth of the farm families send their children to private secondary schools, while only one fourteenth of non-farm rural families choose this option. Table 4.16 tabulates these statistics.

TABLE 4.16

PROPORTION OF NATIONAL, RURAL, AND FARM FAMILIES SENDING CHILDREN TO PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Private School Levels:	National(a)	Rural(b)		
		Non-Farm	Farm	Total
Primary School	9.7	4.7	3.9	4.1
Secondary School	14.9	7.2	22.8	17.9

(a) N.Z. Yearbook 1975, p.199: These figures are calculated from total school rolls, so are not quite comparable to the survey figures for rural families.
(b) Percentages of women reporting children in private schools.

The reasons for sending children to private schools are quite similar to the reasons for sending children boarding, although the emphasis is somewhat different. As can be seen from Table 4.17 the most important reasons relate to better educational opportunities or special facilities, while logistic reasons figure far less prominently. It can also be seen from the table that the reasons for farm families sending their children to private schools are about the same as for rural women in general. One important fact that does not emerge from the table, however, is the matter of religion. Of the twenty-three who cite a religious reason, twenty-two are Roman Catholics, the other being an Anglican. We may therefore conclude that among Protestants the social and logistic reasons are more important than religion. Since the proportion of Roman Catholics in the rural areas is lower than in the New Zealand population at large (11.5% of the sample are Roman Catholics, while the 1971 census counted 15.72% of the New Zealand population), the fact that the proportion of the sample sending children to private secondary schools is about equivalent to the national average indicates that the non-religious reasons are somewhat stronger for rural families.

TABLE 4.17

REASONS FOR SENDING CHILDREN TO PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Category of Reasons:	Total Sample Number	Total Sample Percentage	Farm Residents Number	Farm Residents Percentage
Better educational facilities	26	45	20	42
Religious reasons	23	40	19	40
Social reasons	6	10	6	12
Distance and transport problems	3	5	3	6
Totals	58	100	48	100

EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITIES

The current employment of women in our sample has already been analysed in Chapter Two. In this section, we examine the problems of childcare for working women, employment opportunities in the rural areas, and the kinds of aspirations women have for work and for further professional training.

It was pointed out above that the proportion of women working in paid employment is far smaller among farm women (14%) than among non-farm women (40%) in the rural areas. Of those who are working, however, a slightly higher proportion of farm women work full-time (36%) than of non-farm women (34%). Table 4.18 presents these figures.

TABLE 4.18

RURAL WOMEN WORKING

(Percentages of those answering Question 69: Do you work? (full-time, part-time, occasionally))

	Total Sample		Farm Residents		Non-Farm Residents	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Working	219	23.6	88	14.6	131	39.9
Not working	710	76.4	513	85.4	197	60.1
Totals	929	100.0	601	100.0	328	100.0
Working full-time	76	34.7	32	36.4	44	33.6
Working part-time	143	65.3	56	63.6	87	66.4
Total Working	219	100.0	88	100.0	131	100.0

NOTE: "Part-time" includes seasonal, occasional, and relieving.

These figures do not include farmers' wives working on their own farms, even if they are paid for this work. The analysis of wives' contribution to farm work is discussed in Chapter Two, and we have excluded it from the discussion here because it is far too complicated to treat simply as paid employment. As one farm woman said, "Farm women are far too busy to work"!

Care of Children While Women Work

We asked working women to tell us who looks after their children while they work. For the great majority, this is not a problem, either because they work at home or because their children are old enough to look after themselves and their younger siblings. For the rest, the largest number relies on their husbands to look after the children, while others depend upon neighbours, friends and relatives. Only three women in the entire sample (1.4%) use a creche, and not one hires a baby-sitter while she works. This may suggest a higher reliance upon informal childcare in the countryside than in the cities, but it may also indicate that rural women tend to return to work only when their children are older, whereas more urban women work while they still have preschoolers at home.

TABLE 4.19

CARE OF CHILDREN WHILE WOMEN WORK

(Percentage of all working mothers in each category)

Person looking after children:	Farm Resident	Rural Women	Urban Women (a)
Children old enough	62(b)	66(b)	7
Husband	15	13	29
Other relatives	13(c)	5(c)	20(d)
Day-care centre, creche	2	2	6
Neighbour or friend	2	2	19
Regular help at home	0	0	3
With mother at work	6	10	13
Other	0	1	3
	100	99	100
	N=53	N=134	N=205

NOTES:

(a) Source: Urban Women, Table v, p.29
(b) Includes children looking after younger brothers and sisters
(c) Excludes brothers and sisters
(d) Includes brothers and sisters

Employment Opportunities

When asked whether or not there are employment opportunities in their areas, almost half the women replied that there are none. Most of the rest indicated that there are opportunities for work, but one sixth of these stated that the opportunities are limited. The opportunities for farm women are slightly less than for rural women generally. Table 4.20 tabulates these findings by region.

Of those who stated that employment is available, half did not specify whether these are full-time or part-time opportunities. Of those who did specify, 43% indicated that there is full-time employment available, while 57% indicated that there are part-time, seasonal, and relieving jobs only, although these proportions varied considerably between provinces. Of the five provinces surveyed, Nelson seems to have the greatest opportunities for employment for women in the rural areas, while Northland has the least, but in Nelson the proportion of part-time jobs is higher than average. (See Table 40.9 in Appendix B)

TABLE 4.20

EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES BY REGION AND BY FARM RESIDENCE

(Percentage of answers to Question 62: Are there employment opportunities for you in the area?)

Region	Yes	Limited	No	Don't Know	Total	N
Nelson	59.1	2.3	34.1	4.5	100.0	176
Waikato	42.2	5.6	46.0	6.2	100.0	162
S. Hawke's Bay	38.0	10.9	48.9	2.2	100.0	93
Canterbury	36.5	9.1	52.4	1.9	99.9	208
Southland	34.1	7.3	49.4	9.1	99.9	164
Northland	29.8	5.3	61.1	3.8	100.0	131
Total Sample	40.6	6.5	48.1	4.8	100.0	934
Farm Residents	36.5	6.8	52.2	4.5	100.0	603
Non-Farm Residents	47.9	6.1	40.6	5.5	100.1	330

Many women also indicated the specific types of employment that are available, and their answers are summarised in Table 4.21. Since quite a few women mentioned more than one kind of employment, the total number of responses (706) is considerably higher than the number of women answering the question (411). The percentages therefore add up to more than 100. They provide us with an indication of the proportion of rural areas in which each kind of employment is available. The table indicates, for instance, that clerical positions (office and shop) are reported to be available to about a quarter of the women in the rural areas surveyed, while nursing positions are far less plentiful.

Table 4.21 also indicates that each type of employment is not distributed evenly throughout the rural areas of New Zealand. The greatest discrepancy is in horticultural work, which is far more frequently available in Nelson than in any other region because of the seasonal labour necessary to the hop, tobacco, and berry farms and fruit orchards. For some reason, shop and office jobs are more easily available in the South Island than in the North Island. There seem to be greater opportunities for teachers in rural Waikato than elsewhere, and for hairdressers in rural Southern Hawke's Bay. Casual and factory labour can be obtained more readily in Nelson and Southern Hawke's Bay than in the other regions , and Southland provides the most opportunities for community and social welfare work. We do not know the explanations for many of these discrepancies.

TABLE 4.21

TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES REPORTED AVAILABLE BY REGION

Type of Employment	Total Sample	Nelson	Waikato	S. Hawke's Bay	Canterbury	Southland	Northland
No response	6.6	1.7	6.8	6.5	8.2	10.4	6.1
Don't know or none	49.4	38.1	46.3	49.5	51.4	52.4	61.1
Shop, office, book-keeping, telephone	23.6	23.3	17.3	16.1	32.7	28.0	16.8
Horticulture, forestry, picking fruit	13.2	52.3	9.3	1.1	0.0	4.3	6.1
Domestic and childcare	9.6	13.1	7.4	8.6	10.6	11.0	5.3
Teaching (all levels)	9.4	6.2	14.2	8.6	9.6	8.5	9.2
Casual and factory labour	7.2	14.2	7.4	12.9	2.4	4.9	3.8
Nursing	4.8	4.5	4.3	7.5	5.8	4.3	3.1
Farming and farm labour	3.4	0.6	7.4	4.3	1.9	4.9	2.3
Social and community service	2.0	0.6	2.5	1.1	2.4	4.3	0.8
Hairdressing	1.5	0.6	1.9	5.4	1.0	1.2	0.8
Technician (a)	0.4	0.0	0.0	1.1	1.0	0.6	0.0
Arts and handcrafts	0.4	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.5	0.6	0.0
Number	934	176	162	93	208	164	131

(a) Includes X-ray technician, physiotherapy technician, vet's aide.

Aspirations for Employment

We asked those who are not working at the moment what would be their main reason for taking up employment. Almost half replied that financial consideration would be the most important reason. Over forty percent gave reasons related to self-fulfillment, such as independence, freedom, to get out of the home, or for company. One of these women felt that "women who have no other interests become cabbagy". A small number said they would work only in order to help out or if needed by the community. As one woman said, "I hope that I never need to take up paid employment; I would rather occupy myself working for community affairs".

TABLE 4.22

MAIN REASON FOR TAKING UP EMPLOYMENT IF NOT WORKING NOW

Percent of women not working	Main reason	Percent of women answering
34.4	Financial	39.9
26.5	Self-fulfillment	30.8
8.5	Financial and self-fulfillment	9.8
1.8	To help out	2.1
0.7	Family obligations	0.8
0.6	Don't know	0.7
13.7	Would not work	15.9
13.9	No response	-
100.1		100.0
N=710		N=611

One woman, who is a trained nurse, would like to do district nursing because she "has something to offer the community". "Work in any form that assists other people is essential for one's well-being," said another.

Some women remarked on the lack of employment opportunities even if they were not interested in working themselves. Several said they would like to see more employment opportunities for young people so they would not leave. As one said, "Possibly the saddest thing about this area is the lack of employment for our children. They have to go to boarding school and from then on they are seldom home because of the few jobs offered." From remarks like these, we gather that the problem of employment is seen by some rural women as important to their communities, not merely to themselves.

Those who were not working at the time of the interview and did not intend to take up employment in the foreseeable future were asked their reasons for not working. One quarter of them could not give an answer, but nearly forty percent indicated that it is because they are looking after their children or have other family obligations that deter them from working. About one in eight has no desire to work, and for one in eighteen there are no opportunities. Eleven women (2.1% of those not intending to work) indicated that they have moral objections: either they believe that married women should not take positions from others more needy or else their husbands believe that it is not right for their wives to work. Table 4.23 summarises their reasons for not taking up employment.

TABLE 4.23

REASON WHY DO NOT INTEND TO TAKE UP EMPLOYMENT

Percent of women not working	Reason not working	Percent of women not intending to work
38.0	Home and family obligations	52.5
12.8	Age, health, or handicap	17.7
11.5	No desire to work	16.0
5.4	No opportunity of employment	7.4
2.0	Intends to work later	-
1.5	Moral objection to wives working	2.1
1.3	Transportation problems	1.8
0.8	Wants leisure time	1.2
1.0	Don't know	1.3
25.6	No response	-
99.9 N=710		100.0 N=514

Those who intend to take up employment were asked what type of work they hoped to do, thus providing us with an indication of the sorts of jobs women want in the rural areas. We would like to know whether or not these aspirations are realistic in terms of the opportunities available. Two measures of employment opportunities are available from our survey data; one is what the women themselves say is available (see Table 4.21), and the other is the actual employment of women today. These two comparisons are presented here in separate tables because they provide percentages with different bases. Table 4.24 compares what kind of employment non-working women hope to take up with the actual distribution of working women at the moment. It can be seen from this table that farm women are somewhat less realistic than non-farm women in their aspirations for positions in nursing or arts and crafts, and an unrealistic number of all the rural women are hopeful of gaining employment in hairdressing. Clearly rural women have to settle for less satisfying jobs than they would like - but that is true of most people everywhere, not just in rural areas or just of women. (The figures for technicians are too small to allow any statement.)

TABLE 4.24

COMPARISON BETWEEN ASPIRATIONS AND ACTUAL EMPLOYMENT OF RURAL WOMEN, FARM AND NON-FARM

(Percentages of those working or intending to take up employment)

Type of Work	Working Women	Women Aspiring to Work		
		Total Sample	Farm Residents	Non-Farm Residents
Shop and office	37.3	37.9	34.9	43.8
Teaching (all levels)	20.3	13.7	18.3	4.7
Domestic and childcare	12.4	5.8	2.4	12.5
Nursing	8.3	19.5	23.0	12.5
Social and community work	5.5	4.7	4.0	6.2
Horticulture, forestry, picking	5.1	2.6	3.2	1.6
Factory, garage, casual labour	4.1	1.0	0.0	3.1
Hairdressing	3.2	7.9	5.6	12.5
Farming and farm labour	2.8	1.0	1.6	0.0
Technician*	0.5	1.0	1.6	0.0
Arts and handcrafts	0.5	3.7	4.8	1.6
Other	0.0	1.0	0.8	1.6
	100.0 N=217	99.8 N=190	100.1 N=126	100.1 N = 64

* Includes X-ray technician, physiotherapy technician, vet's aide.

Table 4.25 provides less reliable information, for it is based on reported employment opportunities rather than the evidence of women actually working in each type of employment. Nevertheless, it is useful in providing a different kind of information, namely how the reported opportunities measure up to the sum of those women who are working and those who wish to work in a particular occupation. It is therefore a supply and demand table of a crude sort.

TABLE 4.25

COMPARISON BETWEEN ASPIRATIONS AND REPORTED EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

(Percentage of total sample)

Type of Work	Women Reporting Job Available	Women Working Plus Women Aspiring To Work
Shop and office	23.6	16.4
Teaching	9.4	7.5
Domestic and childcare	9.6	4.1
Nursing	4.8	5.9
Social and community work	2.0	2.2
Horticulture, forestry, picking	13.2	1.7
Factory, garage, casual labour	7.2	1.2
Hairdressing	1.5	2.4
Technician*	0.4	0.3
Arts and handcrafts	0.4	0.9
Other	–	0.2
	N=934	N=934

* Technician includes X-ray technician, physiotherapy technician, vet's aide.

NOTE: Percentages do not total 100 because half of the women reported no opportunities in their area and some women reported more than one kind of job opportunity.

It can be seen from Table 4.25 that the demand for positions outstrips the reported supply in only a few types of employment, namely nursing (by 1.1%), hairdressing (by 0.9%), and arts and handcrafts (by 0.5%).

From the information provided in this section, we conclude that the availability of opportunities for employment is not a serious problem for rural women on a nation-wide basis. Comments during the interviews, however, indicate that some women consider it a community problem, in the sense that young people are forced to leave the rural areas because there are no jobs for them. Furthermore, there are some regions in which it is a greater problem than in others, as indicated by Tables 4.19 and 4.20.

Further Training for Rural Women

Another aspect of employment that was examined in this survey is the availability of refresher and training courses for rural women and their preferences in this regard.

More than a quarter of the women interviewed (29%) had attended courses during the previous year, the proportion of farm women being the same. Some of them attended more than one course, as indicated in Table 4.26.

TABLE 4.26

NUMBER OF COURSES ATTENDED BY RURAL WOMEN IN PREVIOUS YEAR

Number of Courses Attended	Number	Percent
None	662	71.0
One course	205	21.9
Two courses	47	5.0
Three courses	5	0.5
Four courses	4	0.4
Seven courses	1	0.1
Eight courses	1	0.1
Number not specified	9	1.0
Totals	934	100.0

When we asked the respondents whether or not they would consider taking a refresher course or more training to prepare them for employment, almost half the women (46%) stated that they would, with farm women being slightly more positive (46.4%) than non-farm women (44.5%). This suggests that there is a far greater demand for training courses in the rural areas than the supply now being offered. It is therefore worthwhile to examine what kinds of training courses rural women would be interested in attending. Table 4.27 summarises the preferences in this regard. There is no significant difference between the preferences of farm women and those of rural women in general.

The highest demand is for commercial courses such as book-keeping, accounting, typing and telephony. This is a realistic demand, since these kinds of jobs are most readily available in the rural areas. The high demand for nursing courses is less realistic, since we have already seen that there are fewer nursing positions than demand for them in the rural areas; nevertheless, nursing courses are valuable for others than those seeking full-time employment. Little demand is apparent here for academic courses or courses in home science and horticulture, but the reader should bear in mind that we are here recording preferences for training and refresher courses in preparation for employment, not preferences for courses in general.

TABLE 4.27

TYPE OF COURSE RURAL AND FARM WOMEN WOULD ATTEND

(Percentages of those who would consider attending a course)

Type of Course	Total Sample		Farm Women	
	Number	%	Number	%
Commercial (typing, book-keeping)	91	21.3	58	20.7
Nursing (including St. John's)	78	18.2	48	17.1
Teaching (including aide)	71	16.6	47	16.8
Hairdressing and cosmetics	28	6.5	17	6.1
Arts and handcrafts	27	6.3	18	6.4
Technician (physio., X-ray)	27	6.3	19	6.8
Social work, care of handicapped	17	4.0	12	4.3
Academic courses	16	3.7	11	3.9
Home science (including driving)	11	2.6	6	2.1
Farming and horticulture	6	1.4	2	0.7
Don't know or not specified	56	13.1	42	15.0
Totals	428	100.0	280	99.9

CHAPTER FIVE

SOCIAL LIFE OF RURAL WOMEN

Besides regular daily, weekly and monthly routine activities, what else do rural women do? We shall refer to these other activities as social activities. They include doing community work, participation in organisations and clubs, church attendance, social outings, contact with friends and neighbours, participating in spare-time activities, hobbies, and sporting interests, watching television, and taking a holiday.

In this chapter our study of the social life of rural women will be comparative in nature. Comparisons between rural and urban women will be made wherever relevant and whenever comparative results are available from the earlier studies of urban women.

VOLUNTARY COMMUNITY WORK

Doing voluntary community work is one of the social activities of rural women. In this section we look at how many do community work, the types of community work, and how much is done.

Number of Persons Who Do Community Work

Doing voluntary community work involves quite a few, but less than half, of the rural women in New Zealand. Also, more rural than urban women do community work. Community work is done by 43% of the respondents in this study. (See Table 5.1). In an earlier study of urban women and in the more recent study of women at home (whose sample was predominantly urban), only 34% of each sample did community work. (Urban Women, p.66; Women at Home, p.53). Similarly a survey of urban women in Invercargill revealed that only 35% did community work. (Social Survey of Invercargill Women, p.31.)

TABLE 5.1

WHETHER RESPONDENTS DO ANY COMMUNITY WORK

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
Do community work	399	42.7
Do not do community work	529	56.6
No response	6	0.6
TOTAL	934	100.0

The region in which a woman lives, whether she lives on a farm or not, and her age are three factors which are related to whether she does or does not do community work. Table 50.1 (Appendix B) shows that more respondents in the Canterbury and Waikato regions than in the other four survey regions do community work.

In the case of farm and non-farm residence, Table 50.1 (Appendix B) reveals that more respondents who live on farms than those who do not are involved in community work.

With respect to age, Table 50.1 (Appendix B) shows that slightly more middle-aged than young and older respondents are involved in community work.

Types of Community Work

Rural women do many different types of community work. In this study, 66 specific types of community work were mentioned. As Table 5.2 shows, these 66 diverse types have been grouped into eight major categories.

One type of community work involves working through existing organisations. One quarter of those who do community work are involved in specific organisations such as Meals on Wheels, Red Cross, Scouts and Guides, Family Planning Clinic, Y.M.C.A., Solo Parent Association, Plunket Society, Alcoholics Anonymous, and Civil Defence.

Voluntary activities in the area of health care and illness constitute another type of community work. One out of every five respondents who do community work are helping others who are ill or who usually require special health care. These respondents visit hospitals, visit and help the sick and those confined to home, donate blood, and do district nursing.

Another type of community work is related to school and education. One-sixth of the respondents do this type of community work. They serve on school committees, take school first-aid and handcraft classes, and participate in various other school activities.

Doing voluntary work in the churches is another type of community work. This type is done by one-sixth of the respondents. They teach Sunday School and Bible classes, clean the church, and assist with other church activities.

Three other types of community work are: (1) youth work, (2) work with elderly and (3) sports and recreational work. Nearly one out of every 10 respondents do youth work, while lower proportions work with the elderly (5%) or do recreational work (4%).

The responses of 7% of the respondents have been placed in a residual category. These responses were usually very general in nature such as "helping the needy", "entertaining in institutions", "counselling",

TABLE 5.2

TYPES OF COMMUNITY WORK RESPONDENTS DO

	Proportion of Respondents Who Do Community Work	
Type of Community Work	Number	% of total number of types
Organisationally based work (Red Cross, etc.)	144	25.0
Health care and illness work	118	20.5
School related work	88	15.3
Church related work	86	14.9
Youth work	51	8.8
Work with the elderly	28	4.9
Sport and recreation work	24	4.1
Residual type	38	6.6
TOTAL	577	100.1

Amount of Community Work Done

Those rural women who do community work become rather actively involved and do a considerable amount of work on a voluntary basis. This is revealed by the number of hours that rural women devote to community work. Table 5.3 reveals that almost half, and possibly more, of the respondents do more than one hour of community work per week. On an average, the respondents do 3.9 hours of community work per week.

Rural women do more community work than urban women. In the study of urban women, it was found that 12½ hours per month was the average amount of time spent on community work, which is considerably less than the rural women average. (Urban Women, p.66).

TABLE 5.3

NUMBER OF HOURS SPENT ON COMMUNITY WORK

Number of Hours of Community Work Per Week	Proportion of Respondents Who Do Community Work	
	Number	%
1 hour	62	15.5
2 hours	68	17.0
3 hours	42	10.5
4 hours	27	6.8
5 to 9 hours	33	8.3
10 hours or more	18	4.5
Number unspecified	140	35.1
No response	9	2.3
TOTAL	399	100.0

There is regional variation in the number of hours per week spent on community work, but as Table 50.2 (Appendix B) reveals, there is no consistent pattern in the variation. The situation is also complicated by the fact that substantial proportions of respondents in some regions, such as Northland (48%), did not specify the number of hours they devoted to community work.

There are differences between farm and non-farm women in the number of hours spent on community work, but as Table 50.2 (Appendix B) shows the differences are fairly small and do not reveal a strong trend.

There is no strong relationship between the ages of the respondents and the number of hours they do community work. As in the case of regional differences, the proportion who did not specify an exact number of hours is a complicating factor, as 45% of the women in the older age category (56 years and older) did not do so. (See Table 50.2 Appendix B).

The fact that quite a few rural women do more than one type of community work is further evidence that they do a considerable amount of community work.

More than one third of those who do community work are involved in two or more kinds, as Table 5.4 reveals.

When considering involvement in types of community work, it becomes evident that rural women are more actively involved than urban women. In the case of Invercargill women, only 16 per cent were involved in two or more types of community work. (Social Survey of Invercargill Women, p.31)

TABLE 5.4

NUMBER OF TYPES OF COMMUNITY WORK RESPONDENTS DO

Number of Types of Community Work	Proportion of Respondents Who Do Community Work Number	%
1 type	260	65.2
2 types	100	25.1
3 types or more	39	9.8
TOTAL	399	99.9

There is some regional variation in the number of types of community work that rural women do. The main variation, as Table 50.3 (Appendix B) reveals, is that respondents in the Waikato region are involved in a greater number of types of community work than are respondents in other regions.

There is only limited variation between farm and non-farm women when it comes to the number of types of community work they do. Table 50.3 (Appendix B) shows that more farm than non-farm respondents do two types of community work.

The number of types of community work that rural women do is somewhat related to their age. It is revealed in Table 50.3 (Appendix B) that the middle-aged respondents do the greatest number of types, while the younger respondents do the least number of types. However, the differences are not particularly large.

RURAL ORGANISATIONS AND CLUBS

Joining organisations and clubs is another aspect of social life for rural women. We deal with the number who join organisations, and their reasons for joining, their degree of involvement, types of organisations, and organisational activities.

Number Who Belong to Organisations and Clubs

Participation in organisations and clubs is a pervasive characteristic of life for rural women. This is reflected in the fact that vast numbers of rural women belong to organisations. For example, the foregoing analysis of community work of rural women has revealed that one quarter of the respondents participate in organisations and clubs when doing community work. (See Table 5.4). Furthermore, Table 5.5 shows that 83% of the respondents belong to other organisations and clubs.

Rural life is quite different from urban life when it comes to the numbers who participate in organisations. In the case of the study of women at home, only 63% belong to organisations and in Invercargill the similar proportion of 64% of the women belong to organisations. (Women at Home, p.56; Social Survey of Invercargill Women, p.24).

TABLE 5.5.

WHETHER RESPONDENTS BELONG TO ANY ORGANISATIONS

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
Belong to organisations	776	83.1
Do not belong to organisations	154	16.5
No response	4	0.4
TOTAL	934	100.0

There is very little regional variation with respect to the number of rural women who belong to organisations except in the case of one region. As Table 50.4 (Appendix B) shows, fewer respondents in the Nelson region belong to organisations than do respondents in other regions.

Farm women are different from non-farm rural women when it comes to belonging to organisations. More farm women join organisations. Table 50.4 (Appendix B) shows that 11% more farm than non-farm residents are members of organisations.

Age makes little difference to whether rural women join organisations and clubs. As Table 50.4 (Appendix B) reveals, the same proportions of young and middle-aged respondents are members of organisations. However, not as many older respondents are as likely as the others to belong to organisations, but the difference (6%) is not large.

Degree of Involvement in Organisations

The degree of participation in organisations and clubs is fairly high for rural women. One index of this is that multiple organisational membership is a common practice. Table 5.6 shows that nearly three-quarters of those who belong to organisations are members of two or more organisations. In fact, one respondent belongs to nine different organisations, and eight belong to eight organisations.

TABLE 5.6

NUMBER OF ORGANISATIONS OF WHICH RESPONDENTS ARE MEMBERS

Number of Organisations	Proportion of Respondents Who Belong to Organisations Number	%
1 organisation	201	25.9
2 organisations	232	29.9
3 or 4 organisations	251	32.4
5 to 9 organisations	92	11.9
TOTAL	776	100.1

Rural women are more likely than urban women to hold multiple organisational membership. In the Invercargill survey, it was found that only 55% of the women belong to two or more organisations compared to the 74% of the respondents of this study. (p.24). Although specific comparisons in percentages cannot be made, the trends from the Women at Home study support the conclusion that rural women belong to more organisations than urban women do.

There is considerable regional variation in the number of organisations to which rural women belong. Table 50.5 (Appendix B) shows that more respondents in the Canterbury region than in any other region hold multiple organisations membership. In contrast, the Nelson region has the lowest proportion of respondents who hold multiple organisational membership.

Farm women belong to more organisations than do rural women who do not live on farms. As Table 50.5 (Appendix B) shows, 8% more farm than non-farm respondents belong to five or more organisations.

The number of organisations to which rural women belong is related to their age. Table 50.5 (Appendix B) shows that the older respondents belong to more organisations than do younger respondents.

A high degree of participation in organisations is further revealed by the fact that many rural women are office holders in organisations and quite a number of them hold official positions in more than one organisation. Table5.7 shows that nearly half of the respondents who are organisational members are office holders, and Table 5.8 shows that 40% hold an office in more than one organisation. In fact, one woman actually holds office in six organisations.

TABLE 5.7

WHETHER RESPONDENTS HOLD OFFICIAL POSITIONS IN ORGANISATIONS

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Who Belong to Organisations Number	%
Hold office	371	47.8
Do not hold office	400	51.5
No response	5	0.6
TOTAL	776	99.9

TABLE 5.8

NUMBER OF OFFICIAL POSITIONS HELD IN ORGANISATIONS

Number of Official Positions	Proportion of Respondents Who Hold Official Positions Number	%
1 official position	220	59.3
2 official positions	94	25.3
3 official positions	32	8.6
4 to 6 official positions	16	4.3
Unspecified number	9	2.4
TOTAL	371	100.0

There is regional variation in the number of official positions that rural women hold in organisations. In the Southern Hawke's Bay region, 81% of the respondents have an official position in only one organisation, while in the Waikato 25% of the respondents have official positions in three or more organisations. (See Table 50.6 Appendix B).

There is virtually no variation between women who live on farms and those who do not when it comes to the number of official positions which they hold in organisations. (See Table 50.6 Appendix B).

There is, however, some variation in relationship to age of rural women. As Table 50.6 (Appendix B) reveals, multiple office holding is most common among older women and least common among younger women.

Types of Organisations

Rural women participate in a very diverse and extensive range of organisations and clubs. In all, 106 different organisations and clubs were named in this study. These organisations and clubs have been divided into nine major types, as Table 5.9 shows.

Rural women participate most frequently in community service organisations. Nearly one-quarter of the respondents belong to such organisations as the Women's Division of Federated Farmers, Country Women's Institute, Red Cross, Citizens' Association, and Jaycee Wives.

Sporting organisations are the type in which the next highest proportion (20%) of respondents participate. This type includes bowls, netball, tennis, swimming, keep-fit, yoga, trotting, and other clubs.

Religious, recreational, hobby and craft, and educational organisations are four other types to which about one out of every ten respondents belongs. The recreational type of organisation includes bridge clubs, hunt clubs, and square-dancing clubs. The educational type includes Play Centre, book clubs, and discussion groups.

Political, occupational and professional, and special-interest organisations are three other types to which lower proportions of respondents belong. (See Table 5.9). The special-interest type of organisation includes a diversity of groups such as dog and pony clubs, Weight Watchers, travelling groups, car clubs, camera clubs, and Little Peoples' Association.

TABLE 5.9

TYPES OF ORGANISATIONS OF WHICH RESPONDENTS ARE MEMBERS

Type of Organisation	Proportion of Respondents Who Belong to Organisations	
	Number	% of total number of organisations
Community service organisations	467	23.6
Sports organisations	408	20.6
Religious organisations	272	13.7
Recreational organisations	199	10.0
Hobby and handcraft clubs	186	9.4
Educational clubs	183	9.2
Political organisations	75	3.8
Occupational and professional organisations	71	3.6
Special-interest organisations	121	6.1
TOTAL	1982	100.0

Activities of Organisations

Not only do rural women participate a great deal in organisations and clubs, they also seem to find this a satisfying and rewarding activity. This generalisation is based on the finding that three-quarters of the respondents stated that there were no other kinds of activity that they would like in the clubs and organisations to which they already belong. (See Table 5.10). All the organisational activity they desire is currently available.

There is only limited regional variation with respect to whether respondents would like other kinds of activities in their organisations. In the Nelson region more respondents than in other regions would like other activities in their organisations. (See Table 50.7 Appendix B).

Rural women who live on farms and those who do not are equally satisfied with their organisational activities. As Table 50.5 (Appendix B) reveals, there is hardly any difference between the proportion of farm and non-farm respondents who want other activities in their organisations.

TABLE 5.10

WHETHER RESPONDENTS WOULD LIKE OTHER KINDS OF ACTIVITIES IN THEIR ORGANISATIONS

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Who Belong to Organisations	
	Number	%
No other activities desired	586	74.8
Other activities desired	122	15.5
Do not know	44	5.6
No response	31	4.0
TOTAL	783	99.9

Satisfaction with organisational activities varies slightly with the age of rural women. Table 50.7 (Appendix B) shows that more younger than middle-aged and more middle-aged than older respondents would like other activities in their organisations.

Those who indicated that they would like some other kinds of activity in their organisations and clubs (16% of those who belong to organisations) made a wide range of suggestions.

An increase in educational activities of organisations is desired by one quarter of these respondents. Requests were made for "more stimulating discussions", "serious study for women", and "better, more varied speakers". (See Table 5.11.)

The next highest proportion (22%) would like an increase in sport and recreational activities in their organisations. A typical comment was that more activity on "the social side" was desired.

More handcraft and hobby activities are suggested by 18% of the respondents. Most of these respondents simply made very general requests about having more hobby activities and handcraft demonstrations.

A desire for increased membership and a greater degree of involvement in their organisations was expressed by 14% of the respondents. One respondent suggested that membership be increased by visiting housebound mothers to inform them about women's organisations. Others made pleas for more women, particularly younger members, to take a fuller part in organisational activities.

TABLE 5.11

KINDS OF NEW ACTIVITIES RESPONDENTS WOULD LIKE IN THEIR ORGANISATIONS

Kind of Activity	Proportion of Respondents Who Belong to Organisations Number	%
Educational activities	31	25.6
Sport and recreational activities	26	21.5
Handcraft and hobby activities	22	18.2
Increase in membership and greater involvement in organisational activities	17	14.0
Special-interest activities	11	9.1
Community service activities	9	7.4
Better organisational fund raising	2	1.7
More group integration in community	2	1.7
More emphasis on women's activities	1	0.8
TOTAL	121	100.0

Requests were made by 9% of the respondents for the development of special interests, such as an upholstery class, a drama club, art tuition, pottery lessons, floral art instruction, cooking classes, bowls, western riding, and horse trekking.

Greater organisational involvement in community service is desired by 7% of the respondents. They would like more assistance to be given to older people, more involvement with youth, and in general more involvement in helping others.

Very low proportions mention better organisational fund raising, more integration of groups within the community and more emphasis on women's activities.

Reasons for Joining Organisations

Why do rural women join and participate to such a high degree in organisations and clubs? In this study we asked for their main reason for joining organisations. A very substantial proportion join organisations mainly so they can relate to others. That is, they wish to have "contact with people", "meet people", and "mix with people". This was the preponderant reason for joining organisations. As Table 5.12 shows very much lower proportions gave any other reason for joining.

Performing a community service is the main reason for joining for 16% of the respondents. They state that they wish "to help others", "to do something for the community", or to "assist committees". A slightly lower proportion, (12%) join for educational and special-interest purposes. Some join to be educated, while others join in order to exercise an already developed skill or hobby.

TABLE 5.12

REASONS RESPONDENTS JOIN ORGANISATIONS

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Who Belong to Organisations Number	%
To be able to relate to others	493	63.5
To perform a community service	126	16.2
For educational and special-interest purposes	89	11.5
To enable other family members to participate	29	3.7
For fun and enjoyment	15	1.9
To carry out religious evangelisation	8	1.0
To cope with social pressure to join	4	0.5
No response	12	1.6
TOTAL	776	99.9

Low proportions join organisations for a variety of other reasons as is revealed in Table 5.12: (1) to enable family members, mainly children, to participate; (2) to have fun and enjoyment; (3) to carry out religious evangelisation and (4) to cope with social pressure to join.

There is considerable regional variation in the reasons respondents join organisations, but no definite pattern of variation emerges as Table 50.8 (Appendix B) shows.

Farm and non-farm women have very similar reasons for joining organisations. (See Table 50.8 Appendix B).

There is a relationship between the age of rural women and their reasons for joining organisations. Table 50.8 (Appendix B) shows that more middle-aged than older women, and more older than younger women join organisations so that they can perform community services.

INFORMAL LEISURE ACTIVITIES

Informal leisure activities constitute part of the social life of rural women. We deal with the amount of participation in leisure activities, types of leisure activities and the availability of activities.

Degree of Participation in Leisure Activities

Most rural women are highly involved in informal leisure activities. Nearly nine out of ten of the respondents devote some time to spare-time activities. (See Table 5.13).

TABLE 5.13

WHETHER RESPONDENTS PARTICIPATE IN INFORMAL LEISURE ACTIVITIES

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
Participate in leisure activities	820	87.8
Do not participate in leisure activities	105	11.2
No response	9	1.0
TOTAL	934	100.0

There is some regional variation in the degree of participation in leisure activites. As Table 50.9 (Appendix B) shows, the Canterbury region has the highest proportion of participants in leisure activities, and Northland has the lowest.

Farm and non-farm women participate in leisure activities to about the same degree (See Table 50.9 Appendix B).

The degree that respondents participate in leisure activities is not strongly related to their ages. Table 50.7 (Appendix B) shows that a slightly higher proportion of older than middle-aged and younger respondents participate in leisure activities.

The high degree of involvement of rural women in leisure activities is reflected in the fact that most rural women participate in more than one leisure activity. In fact, four fifths of the respondents participate in more than one leisure activity, and one out of every ten participate in five or six. (See Table 5.14).

TABLE 5.14

NUMBER OF LEISURE ACTIVITIES RESPONDENTS DO

Number of Activities	Proportion of Respondents Who Do Leisure Activities Number	%
1 activity	163	19.9
2 activities	228	27.8
3 activities	178	21.7
4 activities	126	15.4
5 or 6 activities	102	12.4
7 or more activities	23	2.8
TOTAL	820	100.0

Types of Leisure Activities

Rural women do many different kinds of leisure activities. In this study, ninety-six different leisure activities were named. As Table 5.15 shows, these have been grouped into fifteen types.

Most rural women seem to use their leisure time very constructively and profitably. Sewing is the leisure activity that the highest proportion (24%) of the respondents do. This is followed by knitting (18%) and gardening (17%). Lower but substantial proportions participate in sports (14%) and do reading and writing (9%) in their leisure time.

Quite a few other types of leisure activities are done by low proportions of the respondents. These types are shown in Table 5.15.

TABLE 5.15

TYPES OF LEISURE ACTIVITIES

Type of Activity	Proportion of Respondents Who Do Leisure Activities Number	% of Sample*	% of total Activities
Sewing	541	57.9	23.5
Knitting	421	45.1.	18.3
Gardening	387	41.4	16.8
Participation in sports	316	33.8	13.7
Reading and writing	203	21.7	8.8
Home decorating and cooking	83	8.9	3.6
Ballet, dancing, singing, and music interests	68	7.3	2.9
Activities associated with animals	68	7.3	2.9
Spectator sports	48	5.1	2.1
Painting, pottery, and floral art	42	4.5	1.8
Activities with children, grandchildren and family	35	3.7	1.5
Collecting stamps and photography	26	2.8	1.1
Woodwork and canework	23	2.5	1.0
Cards, chess, mahjong, housie and jigsaws	16	1.7	0.7
Residual: political affairs, fly-typing, historical interests, and typing	29	3.1	1.3
TOTAL	2306		100.0

* Total more than 100 because many women do more than one activity.

Availability of Leisure Activities

How available are different leisure activities for rural women? In this study, over half of the respondents indicated that the leisure activities they wish to pursue are available in their area. (See Table 5.16). However, for a substantial proportion (37%) there are leisure activities they would like to do which are not available.

TABLE 5.16

AVAILABILITY OF LEISURE ACTIVITIES

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
All desired activities activities available	572	61.2
Some desired activities not available	344	36.8
No response	18	1.9
TOTAL	934	99.9

There is considerable regional variation in the availability of leisure activites. Table 50.10 (Appendix B) reveals that not as many respondents in the Canterbury and Waikato regions as in the other regions are satisfied with the availability of leisure activities.

Farm women are less satisfied than non-farm women when it comes to the availability of leisure activities. Table 50.10 (Appendix B) shows that more farm than non-farm respondents would like some other leisure activities available in their area.

Satisfaction with the availability of leisure activities is closely related to the age of rural women. Many more younger and middle-aged than older respondents would like other leisure activities to be available. (See Table 50.10 Appendix B).

There are four major types of leisure activities that the respondents would like to have available in their area. Greater availability of educational activities is desired by 26% of the respondents who do not already have sufficient activities available. (See Table 5.17). Quite a number would like to do formal, academic courses and others would like to do sewing, knitting, and other handcraft classes. (See Chapter 4, final section, on availability and preferences for training and refresher courses.)

The next highest proportion (24%) of respondents would like to be able to do pottery, art printing, painting, or crafts. These respondents do not particularly want instruction in these activities; they merely desire the necessary facilities and company of others while doing these activities.

The availability of a wider range of sports is desired by 18% of the respondents. The many sports mentioned include swimming, keep-fit classes, basketball, badminton, bowls, netball, golf, squash and hockey.

In the case of the fourth major type, 10% of the respondents would like music, drama and film programmes to be available in their area.

Lower proportions would like other types of leisure activities to be available in their area. These types are shown in Table 5.17.

TABLE 5.17

TYPES OF LEISURE ACTIVITIES THAT ARE NOT AVAILABLE

	Proportion of Respondents Who Desire Other Activities		
Type of Activity	Number	%	Proportion of Total Sample*
Educational activities	88	25.5	9.4
Pottery, art, printing, painting and crafts	81	23.5	8.7
Sports	61	17.7	6.5
Music, drama and film programmes	35	10.2	3.7
Knitting, embroidery, and sewing clubs	10	2.9	1.1
Service organisations	8	2.2	0.9
Activities associated with animals (e.g. pony club)	7	2.0	0.7
Housie	6	1.7	0.6
Gardening Club	5	1.5	0.5
Religious fellowship	4	1.2	0.4
Senior Citizens' Association	4	1.2	0.4
Other organisations	4	1.2	0.4
Residual category	23	6.7	2.5
No response	8	2.3	0.9
TOTAL	344	99.9	

* Do not total 100 because most women satisfied with leisure activities available.

WATCHING TELEVISION

Television viewing is a common activity for rural women. In this study, only 6% of the respondents have no television or do not watch it. As Table 5.18 reveals, one quarter of the respondents watch 21 or more hours per week, and well over half watch 11 or more hours per week.

TABLE 5.18

NUMBER OF HOURS OF TELEVISION VIEWING

Number of hours per week	Proportion of Respondents Who Watch Television Number	%
1 to 5 hours	90	10.6
6 to 10 hours	183	21.7
11 to 15 hours	212	25.0
16 to 20 hours	137	16.2
21 hours or more	224	26.5
TOTAL	846	100.0

There is only limited regional variation in the amount of television rural women watch. (See Table 50.11 Appendix B). However, there is variation between farm and non-farm residents. Non-farm women watch more television than do farm women, as Table 50.11 (Appendix B) reveals.

The amount of television viewing rural women do is related to their age. Table 50.11 (Appendix B) reveals that the older respondents watch considerably more television than the middle-aged and younger respondents do.

CHURCH ATTENDANCE

Church attendance is a fairly common practice among rural women. Almost seven out of every ten respondents attends church as Table 5.19 shows.

TABLE 5.19

CHURCH ATTENDANCE

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
Attend church	635	68.0
Do not attend church	276	29.6
No response	23	2.5
TOTAL	934	100.1

Rural and urban women are quite similar when it comes to church attendance. The Urban Women study found that 64% attended church (p.69).

Church attendance by rural women is much lower in two regions, Nelson and Northland, than in the others. (See Table 50.12 Appendix B). It is highest in Southern Hawke's Bay and Canterbury, where more than four out of five attend church.

Farm women are a little more likely to attend church than are non-farm women. (See Table 50.12 Appendix B).

In the case of age, Table 50.12 (Appendix B) shows that middle-aged and older women attend church more frequently than do younger women.

Frequent attendance at church is fairly common practice for rural women. For example as Table 5.20 shows, one third attend church at least once a week.

TABLE 5.20

FREQUENCY OF CHURCH ATTENDANCE

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Who Attend Church Number	%
Once a week	215	33.9
Once a fortnight	88	13.9
Once a month	135	21.3
Two or three times a year	48	7.5
On special occasions only (e.g. weddings)	149	23.5
TOTAL	635	100.1

There is regional variation in frequency of church attendance. The main difference is that the rural women in Southland attend church much more frequently than women in any other region (See Table 50.13 Appendix B).

The differences between farm and non-farm women are very limited with respect to frequency of church attendance. (See Table 50.13 Appendix B). There is however, a relation between frequency of church attendance, and the age of rural women. Table 50.13 (Appendix B) shows that older respondents attend the most frequently and younger respondents the least frequently.

SOCIAL OUTINGS

One of the truly social activities of rural women involves going out for purely social purposes. In this section we look at how often rural women do this, how often they would like to, and the conditions which affect their social outings.

Frequency of Social Outings

How often do rural women go out socially? Our findings reveal that 14% of the respondents have not gone out socially in the last month. On the other hand, some go out socially very often. For example, one out of ten went out ten or more times in the last month, and about two out of ten went out five to nine times. Table 5.21 reveals the proportions who went out less frequently.

Rural women go out socially more than urban women do. The study of urban women reveals that in the daytime 23% did not go out socially in the last month and in the evenings 26% did not go out. (Urban Women, p.66, Table IV).

TABLE 5.21

FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL OUTINGS

Number of Outings	Proportion of Respondents Who Went Out in the Last Month Number	%
None	133	14.4
1 outing	144	15.6
2 outings	137	14.8
3 outings	105	11.4
4 outings	135	14.6
5 to 9 outings	176	19.1
10 or more outings	85	9.2
Number unspecified	8	0.9
TOTAL	923	100.0

The frequency of going out socially does not vary much between regions. Farm women and non-farm women go out socially about the same amount. Also women in the three age categories go out about the same number of times. (See Table 50.14 Appendix B).

Number of Desired Social Outings

Do rural women go out socially as often as they want? Some rural women do not. In this study, one-fifth of the respondents did not go out as often as they wanted in the last month. (See Table 5.22).

TABLE 5.22

WHETHER RESPONDENTS WENT OUT AS OFTEN AS THEY WANTED IN THE LAST MONTH

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
Went out as often as wanted	717	76.8
Did not go out as often as wanted	202	21.6
No Response	15	1.6
TOTAL	934	100.0

There is only limited regional variation in whether the respondents go out socially as often as they would like. Farm and non-farm respondents hardly vary on this matter. In the case of age, fewer younger than middle-aged and older respondents go out as often as they want. (See Table 50.15 Appendix B).

Factors Controlling Number of Outings

There are seven main reasons why those who want to go out more often are unable to do so. As Table 5.23 shows, family responsibilities, including health of others, pregnancy, and breast-feeding, prevent one-fifth from going out as often as they want. Another fifth are prevented by lack of companions; in some cases they are widowed and in other cases no one asks them to go out.

The other main reasons for not going out more are: (1) transportation and weather problems, (2) health problems, tiredness, and physical handicaps, (3) insufficient time, (4) lack of money, and (5) husband's work or other interests.

TABLE 5.23

FACTORS CONTROLLING NUMBER OF OUTINGS

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Who Do Not Go Out As Often As They Want	
	Number	%
Family responsibilities	47	22.7
No one to go out with	42	20.3
Transportation and weather problems	30	14.5
Health probems, tiredness, and handicaps	27	13.0
Too busy	21	10.1
Lack of money	21	10.1
Husband's work or interests	17	8.2
Lack of effort	2	1.0
TOTAL	207*	99.9

* This total contains five respondents who appear in Table 5.22 as part of the "no response" category.

VISITING AND SOCIAL CONTACTS

Visiting other people is a characteristic feature of rural life. In this section we look at the amount of visiting that rural women do as well as the amount that they are visited. We also deal with regular friendship contacts and the frequency that rural women talk to their neighbours.

Rural women do quite an amount of visiting. In the week prior to being interviewed about half the respondents had visited two or more persons. However, one-quarter of the respondents had not visited anyone in that time. (See Table 5.24).

The number of people rural women visit does not depend upon the region in which they live nor whether or not they live on a farm. (See Table 50.16 Appendix B). There is, however, a definite relationship between the amount of visiting and the age of rural women. Table 50.16 Appendix B) shows that middle-aged and older women do more visiting than younger women.

TABLE 5.24

NUMBER OF PEOPLE RESPONDENT VISITED DURING THE PAST WEEK

Number Visited	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
No one	232	24.8
1 person	169	18.1
2 persons	171	18.3
3 persons	114	12.2
4 persons	85	9.1
5 or more persons	100	10.7
Number unspecified	59	6.3
TOTAL	934	100.0

Rural women are visited quite frequently. Seven out of every ten respondents had more than one visitor in the week prior to interviewing and only 13% had no visitors. (See Table 5.25). There is, however, very little variation in this matter by region, by farm and non-farm residence, or by age. (See Table 50.17 Appendix B).

TABLE 5.25

NUMBER OF PEOPLE WHO VISITED RESPONDENT DURING THE PAST WEEK

Number of Visitors	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
No one	125	13.4
1 person	110	11.8
2 persons	131	14.0
3 persons	100	10.7
4 persons	104	11.1
5 or more persons	320	34.3
Number unspecified	39	4.1
No response	5	0.5
TOTAL	934	99.9

Rural women maintain regular contact with quite a few friends. Table 5.26 shows that nearly three out of every ten respondents have regular contact with six to ten friends. Regional variation about regular friendship contacts is limited except for one instance. Southland seems to be the friendliest region, more respondents there having more friends than anywhere else. (See Table 50.18 Appendix B).

TABLE 5.26

NUMBER OF FRIENDS RESPONDENTS CONTACT REGULARLY

Number of Friends	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
None	25	2.7
1 to 5 persons	251	26.9
6 to 10 persons	266	28.5
11 to 15 persons	93	10.0
16 to 20 persons	60	6.4
21 or more persons	58	6.2
Number unspecified	157	16.8
No response	24	2.6
TOTAL	934	100.1

Farm women maintain regular contact with a few more friends than do non-farm women. (See Table 50.18 Appendix B). There seems to be no relationship between the age of the respondent and the number of friends she has. (See Table 50.18 Appendix B).

Talking to neighbours is another form of social contact for rural women. Over half the respondents talk to their neighbours regularly, and only about one out of every 20 respondents hardly ever talks to her neighbours. (See Table 5.27). This pattern does not vary among regions, between farm residents and others, or among the different age groups. (See Table 50.19 Appendix B).

TABLE 5.27

FREQUENCY OF TALKS WITH NEIGHBOURS

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
Regularly	522	55.9
Occasionally	340	36.4
Hardly ever	61	6.5
No response	11	1.2
TOTAL	934	100.0

HOLIDAYS

Rural women and their holidays is the final social activity that we examine. We look at the number and length of holidays and the conditions affecting holidays.

Frequency of Holidays

Some rural women do not have a regular holiday. In fact, about one out of every ten respondents have not had a holiday in the last three years. (See Table 5.28).

TABLE 5.28

WHETHER RESPONDENTS HAVE HAD A REGULAR HOLIDAY IN THE LAST THREE YEARS

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Number	%
Have had a holiday	820	87.8
Have not had a holiday	109	11.7
No response	5	0.5
TOTAL	934	100.0

There is only limited regional variation in the number of respondents who have not had a regular holiday in the last three years. Furthermore, there is virtually no difference between farm and non-farm respondents regarding the frequency of holidays. (See Table 50.2 0, Appendix B). However, whether or not the respondents have a regular holiday is related to their age. As Table 50.20 (Appendix B) reveals, older respondents are least likely to have a regular holiday and younger respondents are most likely.

Even if rural women do have regular holidays, some of them do not have holidays very frequently. Sixteen percent of the respondents have only had one holiday in the last three years, and nearly one-fifth have only had two holidays. (See Table 5.29)

TABLE 5.29

FREQUENCY OF HOLIDAYS

Number of Holidays in the Last Three Years	Proportion of Respondents Who Have Had A Holiday	
	Number	%
1 holiday	130	15.9
2 holidays	154	18.8
3 holidays	385	47.0
4 to 6 holidays	101	12.3
7 or more holidays	44	5.4
Number unspecified	6	0.7
TOTAL	820	100.1

Reasons for No Holidays

Many reasons prevent rural women from having regular holidays. In this study, those who did not have a holiday in the last three years gave 13 different reasons for not having one.

Three main reasons affect the largest proportions of respondents. About one-fifth have too much to do or are too busy, and another fifth are unable to leave the farm or find it too difficult to get someone to take over. Nearly one-fifth do not have enough money for a regular holiday. Lower proportions of respondents are unable to have holidays for other reasons. (See Table 5.30).

TABLE 5.30

REASONS FOR NO HOLIDAY

Response Category	Proportion of Respondents Who Have Not Had A Holiday In the Last Three Years Number	%
Too much to do and too busy	26	21.3
Unable to leave farm and too difficult to get someone to take over	26	21.3
Insufficient money	23	18.9
Did not want a holiday	22	18.0
Family commitments	10	8.2
Sickness and poor health	7	5.7
No one to go with	3	2.5
Farming activities do not coincide with school holidays	2	1.6
Too busy and insufficient money	2	1.6
Holiday times of husband and wife do not coincide	1	0.8
TOTAL	122*	99.9

*This total includes 13 respondents who previously indicated they had had a holiday.

Average Length of Holidays

Rural women usually have a fortnight's holiday each year. As Table 5.31 shows, nearly four out of every ten respondents have two weeks of holidays. About one-fifth have one week of holidays, and 13% have three weeks.

There is regional variation in the average length of holidays. Women in Southern Hawke's Bay and Waikato have longer holidays than do women in other regions. Table 50.21 (Appendix B) shows that one quarter of the respondents in these two regions have three weeks of holidays per year.

Farm women have shorter holidays than non-farm women. Older rural women have the longest holidays. Middle-aged women are next, and the younger women have the shortest holidays. (See Table 50.21 Appendix B).

TABLE 5.31

AVERAGE LENGTH OF HOLIDAYS

Number of Weeks Per Year	Proportion of Respondents Who Have A Holiday	
	Number	%
Less than 1 week	31	3.8
1 week	144	17.6
2 weeks	307	37.4
3 weeks	108	13.2
4 to 6 weeks	35	4.3
Longer holidays (e.g. school breaks and working holidays)	14	1.7
No response	181	22.1
TOTAL	820	100.1

CHAPTER SIX

IMPLICATIONS OF SURVEY FINDINGS FOR POLICY RESEARCH

In this report, our aim has been to set out the findings of the survey in as objective a manner as possible. We have endeavoured to describe the situation as it was presented to us but have made little attempt so far to interpret the information or draw out any implications. We hope that from this information readers will draw some conclusions for themselves.

In this final chapter we attempt to go beyond our findings and consider some of the implications. The chapter is not intended as a summary of the findings, for these have been stated in the introduction. Instead, it sets out, first, the policy implications for government, the rural community and community organisations, and, secondly, the implications for further research.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

During the interviewing for this survey, many respondents commented that they hoped the survey results would be useful to those who participated and to New Zealanders in general. By providing a descriptive account of the life style of rural women we hope we have achieved the first objective; by presenting policy recommendations we anticipate that the survey results can be made useful to the government, community planners, and others. This section explores policy implications of some of the survey findings, namely those in the areas of education, employment, involvement of farm women in work on the farm and farm decisions, community organisations and clubs and organisational skills.

Pre-School Education

Pre-school education in New Zealand is by no means available to all. In the rural areas, however, it is available to far fewer pre-schoolers than in urban areas. Of those facilities that are available, playcentres are more prevalent than kindergartens, but even playcentres are often inaccessible to those who live in isolated areas.

Obviously, more pre-school facilities should be established in rural areas if New Zealand is committed to equal access to education, but the problem of physical accessibility warrants a further concern for the type of pre-school established. It seems that the desire for more pre-school facilities could best be served by establishing not only more pre-schools but smaller ones. Consideration could also be given to the encouragement of a variety of pre-school groups, idiosyncratic systems that might arise within a rural community itself. Support might include the loaning of suitable equipment through a central body such as the National Library Service or Film Library, thus ensuring a regular variety of activities. Wider encouragement of family play groups and mobile playcentres might also meet with success.

Transport to School

Some of the most adverse comments made by respondents were concerned with school transport. While a few had to pay for the school bus service, and those who did usually paid a reasonable sum, the time spent by children travelling to school was cause for considerable comment. Many country children have to leave home early in the morning and return home late in the afternoon, not necessarily just because they live some distance from the school, but also because of the scheduling of bus routes. The loss of time and the fatigue involved in such lengthy journeys often jeopardises the children's school performance and the possibility of their participation in extra-curricular activities.

It is suggested that more thought be given to the provision of smaller and more buses, so facilitating the greater number of bus routes; and that the amalgamation of country schools, especially primary schools, be seriously questioned to determine whether the advantages outweigh the disadvantages.

Primary Education

We have no recommendations to make concerning primary education, but we would like to point to an issue that continues to concern rural people. Since the 1930's the Department of Education has maintained a policy of amalgamating small rural schools in an effort to provide better facilities, more social contact and presumably better education for the children involved. However, with amalgamation and the consequent closing of smaller schools the rural community is faced with increasing transport problems and the loss of a focus for their small rural neighbourhoods. Many respondents raised the question as to whether amalgamation was worth the effort, and whether in fact the children did gain a better education than in the smaller schools.

This is an issue that cannot be solved by this report for we do not have the information on which to base any recommendations. We can only recognise the fact that it remains an issue among the rural population and that any further decisions to amalgamate should be based on sound educational research.

Further Education

The survey has shown that rural women have more school education than their husbands or urban women. It is not surprising therefore that one of the suggestions for improving rural life is a desire for further education.

Many women specifically asked for academic or general education courses, which would be taught in a formal and structured manner over a period of weeks or months. Courses in history, psychology, sociology, English, Maori, community organisation, and law are some of the subjects that could be covered. In any such courses, it seems important to take into account the position of rural women themselves, e.g. courses comparing rural communities might be of interest, as also a course in the law as it applies to farm women. Such a course offered in 1975 in Hamilton met with an overwhelming response.

Another area of further education arises from the type of work farm women do. A significant proportion of them assist or are responsible for the paper work or book-keeping for the farm. In order to fill this role more adequately many farm women requested the provision of practical courses in book-keeping, accountancy, and economics.

A third form of further education requested was in the area of re-training or training for future jobs. The most frequent requests were for commercial courses such as book-keeping, accountancy, typing and telephony. The demand for these courses would seem to be a realistic one, for many of these kinds of jobs are available in the rural areas.

It is possible to identify three areas of further education requested by the rural women: academic courses, farm accounting and book-keeping courses, and training courses in commercial subjects. Suggestions have been made that the courses be of a continuing nature. It is recommended that bodies such as women's organisations, appropriate government departments, farming groups and university departments of extension studies consider the possibility of establishing such courses in rural areas. One would hope that these courses would attract, not only the rural women who have requested them, but also rural men.

Employment

With further education and training, rural women are better equipped to undertake employment away from home. Survey results show that those woman who already have some further education or training are more likely to seek work away from home, although not until their family responsibilities decrease. There is, however, still a large number of trained women outside the work-force, including, for instance, secretaries, teachers and nurses. Many of these women expressed a desire to work in a part-time capacity. It seems that the shortage of teachers and nurses in rural areas is not a question of availability but one of inducement.

Two outcomes of this situation are apparent. First, it is suggested that employers explore the possibility of locating small industries in or near rural communities in the hope of attracting women who are interested in part-time employment. Secondly, it is recommended that the Education and Health Departments be more flexible in their approach to staffing rural schools and health services. Women teachers and nurses are available in these areas, and could possibly be attracted by offering part-time employment, team-teaching and other more flexible working arrangements.

Work on the Farm

The important role which farm women play as a source of farm labour on dairy farms has been noted in surveys in the Central Volcanic Plateau and South Taranaki (Campbell, 1970; Willis, 1973). Campbell found that on 87% of the dairy farms in his sample the wife assisted with the milking. From the rural women survey, however, it appears that it is not just the dairy farmer's wife who helps on the farm, for, of all those women who live on a farm, three-quarters of them help on the farm, undertaking a variety of tasks ranging from stockwork and milking to tractor-driving and paperwork. In view of this involvement in the business side of the farm, it has already been recommended that practical courses in accountancy, bookkeeping and economics be established for these women.

The possibility that farmer's wives will be less involved in farm work in the future has been discussed by Lloyd, who suggests that consideration should be given to

> "the effect which equal pay for women and the greater involvement of urban women in the work force is likely to have on the rural scene, and in particular on the farm labour contribution of farm wives." (1974, p.42).

At the time of our survey, few farmers' wives either worked in outside employment or wished to. Nevertheless, the work force in urban areas continues to be swelled by women and more particularly married women. It is recommended that farming organisations carefully monitor the beginnings of any such trend among rural women so that moves can be taken to compensate for this loss of labour. Alternatively efforts should be made by farming organisations, and husbands of rural women in particular, to recognise the contribution that farm women make to the business by at least paying them for their services, if not allowing them a share in the ownership of the farm.

Involvement of Women in Farm Decisions

The fact that most farmers' wives work at some time during the year and yet few of them own a share in the farm seems an anomaly. This situation can be further compared with the fact that farm women tend to play an important part in making farm decisions. The role of the farmer's wife in making joint decisions concerning the farm tends to increase with the term of planning. Thus farm wives are more involved in decisions relating to seasonal planning than they are in decisions to do with the day-to-day running of the farm, and even more so in decisions involving finance and investment.

This trend has important ramifications for those who advise the farming community. If in at least one third of farming households decisions to do with farm finance and investment are made jointly, then farm advisors, bank managers, stock and station agents and others need to be prepared to discuss these matters with the farmer's wife, not just with the farmer. Farming bodies must make available the information required to make such decisions and encourage farm women to avail themselves of it. Farming open days and conferences, and even commercial firms, should also recognise that the information they are providing will be considered and acted upon not only by the farmer but also by his wife. Conference organisers should therefore endeavour to make it easier for farmers' wives to attend.

Community Organisations and Clubs

A high proportion of the rural women interviewed undertake community work or belong to some social clubs or sporting group. We asked the women if there were any other activities they would like. The request for additional educational courses was repeated. Obviously the women see such courses serving not only the purposes outlined above under Further Education, but also a social function. The organisers of such courses would be well advised to incorporate this aspect into any proposed course.

There were many requests for sport and recreational activities as well as for handcraft and hobby activities. With both these types of activites physical facilities and courses of instruction were requested. Rural community halls could be made available for such sports as badminton, table tennis, yoga, bowls, fencing, indoor basketball, etc., as well as to provide storage space for handcraft and hobby classes in pottery, spinning and weaving, painting, basketry, china painting, woodwork.

Associated with the provision of these facilities it is suggested that courses of instruction be established by local branches of women's organisations, the Young Farmers' Club, youth groups, and the like. Such activities could be based on local schools, thus optimising the use of these community facilities.

Organisational Skills

One of the outcomes of the survey, and the research team's contact with a large number of rural women, was the documentation and appreciation of the high level of organisational skills existing among rural women. Not only did we find that these women could plan and carry out training sessions, branch meetings and large annual conferences in a highly efficient manner, but they also took the time to attend to the small aspects of hospitality and kindness which make participants feel important and wanted.

Such organisational skills can surely be utilised for the purposes outlined above, given encouragement from some sponsoring body. The establishment of more playcentres or family play groups, or a community-based sporting or hobby programme could well be organised by local branches of the Women's Division or other women's organisations. These same organisational skills and the expertise gained through this survey could also be drawn upon in future research.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

During the planning of this survey we were contacted by many groups and organisations who suggested areas to be included in the questionnaire. Unfortunately we had to leave out many of the suggested questions for two reasons: the questionnaire was already a fairly lengthy one; and, in conjunction with the Women's Division we had decided that as this survey was to be the first of its kind in New Zealand it should be of a general nature and essentially descriptive. We hoped that such a survey would become the baseline for further research either in a comparative sense, or by taking specific aspects of these findings and exploring them further. With both of these objectives in mind, the following sections set out aspects of further research in the areas of further analysis of data from the survey, community research, schooling, dissatisfaction with rural life, and problems of the isolated rural population.

Further Analysis of Data from this Survey

While every effort has been made in this report to present as much information as possible, many of our findings are of a very specific nature and relevant only to particular interest groups. Furthermore some of the data require further analysis and comparison before they can be of use to interested parties. Using information from the survey we intend, for instance, to investigate further the indications of heterogeneity within the rural population: the differences in life-style between farm and non-farm residents and among farm residents of different sorts, and the ways in which differences within the rural community may contribute to any dissatisfaction with rural life.

Another aspect requiring further analysis is to do with marriage and family trends. The survey noted that the age at marriage and the age at first birth of rural women was much lower than for all New Zealand women. The reasons for this are not entirely clear, but further analysis and research could show that there are regional differences in these demographic trends. Why rural people marry earlier would be more difficult to establish. Whatever the reason the difference in the age at marriage and at first birth of rural women and that of the total population raises questions as to whether other demographic facts also differ when it comes to the rural population. The survey found differences between the rural population and the total population and between the farm and non-farm population. There may also be differences between these categories in such matters as longevity, illness, mental health, divorce rate, child abuse, delinquency.

Community Research

One of the difficulties related to survey research based on a national sample is that while it gives a broad outline of a particular aspect, it does not, and cannot, portray the situation in any particular community. This survey can broadly describe the life style of New Zealand rural women, but not that of the women living in Maharahara West, Whetakura or Tikorangi. Neither can this survey describe the integration of such communities: how the farm families share farm labour and machinery, how the neighbourhood copes with school transport problems, and the care of the handicapped and the elderly, or the manner in which new families are attracted into the area. All these matters and many others are best investigated within small communities themselves. Such a study need not be survey research, for the reliance on a questionnaire can limit findings to a superficial level. Small-scale community research can however provide a more integrated picture of the life of a community.

The need for small-scale research has already been recognised by the Society for Research on Women, which has largely been concerned with such research in urban areas. It is suggested that branches of the Women's Division and other women's organisations or community-based groups could undertake similar research in rural areas, research which is small-scale and immediately useful in that particular community. The Tinui branch of the Women's Division has already set a fine example in this direction.

Schooling

The lack of pre-school facilities in rural areas calls for some assessment of the applicability of present types of pre-schools for the rural population. It may be that kindergartens, playcentres and family play groups are not entirely suitable in the rural context. Rural children, for instance, may not require as many outlets for physical or spatial development but instead require a heavier emphasis on social and communication skills. We did not ask our respondents for an assessment of the quality of pre-school education, but it was apparent from their comments that more flexibility and new approaches are needed in this area. Research could be directed towards assessing the practicability of existing pre-school facilities (as well as any new approaches) to the rural population. Areas to be investigated might include: the organisation required for establishment, the means of funding, suitability of programmes for rural children, involvement of parents.

Research could also be directed towards the question of amalgamating primary schools. An assessment of the advantages and disadvantages of centralising primary school facilities seems important, if the rural population is to take advantage of New Zealand's educational policy of equal access to education.

Dissatisfaction with Rural Life

Our survey found only twelve women who are dissatisfied with rural life. Obviously, those who were at other times dissatisfied with rural life have already left. Any consideration of the dissatisfying aspects of rural life must therefore include ex-rurals who are presumably now living in a more urban environment.

Such a study could prove very useful. It would, for instance, delineate reasons why rural people leave the country and their assessment of the relative advantages and disadvantages of urban and rural life. It would, however, be almost impossible to locate a reasonable number of recent migrants living in urban areas. Instead, it might be advisable to interview rural people as they leave the country. This type of approach could also be useful in providing a long-term view of any changes in the reasons for leaving. The Women's Division could undertake such a continuing project using a standardized questionnaire in an interview with people leaving the country.

Problems of the Isolated Rural Population

During the training sessions many interviewers from the Women's Division commented on the fact that some women in the drawn sample were not 'real' country people, they were living too close to a town or city to be considered rural. Rurality for these interviewers was defined in terms of the degree of physical isolation of the residents. This report does not bear out this definition, for most of the rural women we surveyed did not consider themselves isolated, either physically or socially. Nevertheless we are aware of the fact that our sampling procedures have drawn very few isolated rural women (the low number of households with children taking correspondence lessons is an indication of this).

There is little information available in New Zealand about this group of people, yet there are some indications that they are becoming aware of their situation. Recently an organisation has been established called Towards Rural Equality of Citizenship concerned with the problems faced by people living in isolated rural areas. Any group sympathetic to their cause will certainly require some factual information to evaluate their claims.

A special study should be made of the problems of isolated rural people. The study would investigate problems of roading, schooling (especially correspondence schooling), communication and medical facilities. This could be a suitable piece of research for local branches of the Women's Division of the Federated Farmers.

APPENDIX A

RESEARCH METHODS

This appendix describes the research methods of this study. We deal with the sampling regions, selection of the sample, development of the questionnaire, and the organisation of the survey.

SAMPLING REGIONS

This study was done in six regions of New Zealand: Southland, Canterbury, Nelson, Southern Hawke's Bay, Waikato, and Northland. Within five regions, there was a further selection of counties as follows:

Canterbury:	Wairewa, Malvern, Waipara, Amuri, and Cheviot
Nelson:	Golden Bay and Waimea
Hawke's Bay:	Dannevirke
Waikato:	Otorohanga and Waikato
Northland:	Whangarei and Hobson.

The location of these counties and regions is shown in Figures A.1 and A.2.

A number of factors determined the choice of these six regions and the particular counties within them. These were: type of farming, distance from a major urban centre, geographical location, and availability of interviewers. However, one factor, that of farm type, was given pre-eminence over the others in the selection process. Through the careful perusal of land-use maps, regions and counties within regions were chosen so that every farm type would be adequately represented in this study. As can be seen from Table 2.28 in Chapter Two, all major farming types are well represented in this study. Furthermore, in the case of dairy farming, the representation is proportional to the national situation. In 1972, 31% of the farms in New Zealand were dairy farms, while in this study 29% of the farms are dairy farms. Sheep and cropping farms are over-represented, and beef farms are somewhat under-represented in this study.

Other selection factors included the distance of the region from a major urban centre, the geographical location of the region, and the availability of Women's Division members for interviewing purposes. Thus, we chose counties in Canterbury because of their proximity to Christchurch, while Southland was chosen because of its remoteness from a major urban centre. We also chose regions so there would be coverage of east and west coast and southern and northern parts of the country. In the case of the third factor mentioned above, Dannevirke was chosen rather than Woodville

FIGURE A.1

SAMPLING REGIONS AND COUNTIES: SOUTH ISLAND

Region County

NELSON:

1. Golden Bay
2. Waimea

CANTERBURY:

3. Amuri
4. Cheviot
5. Waipara
6. Malvern
7. Wairewa

SOUTHLAND:

8. Southland

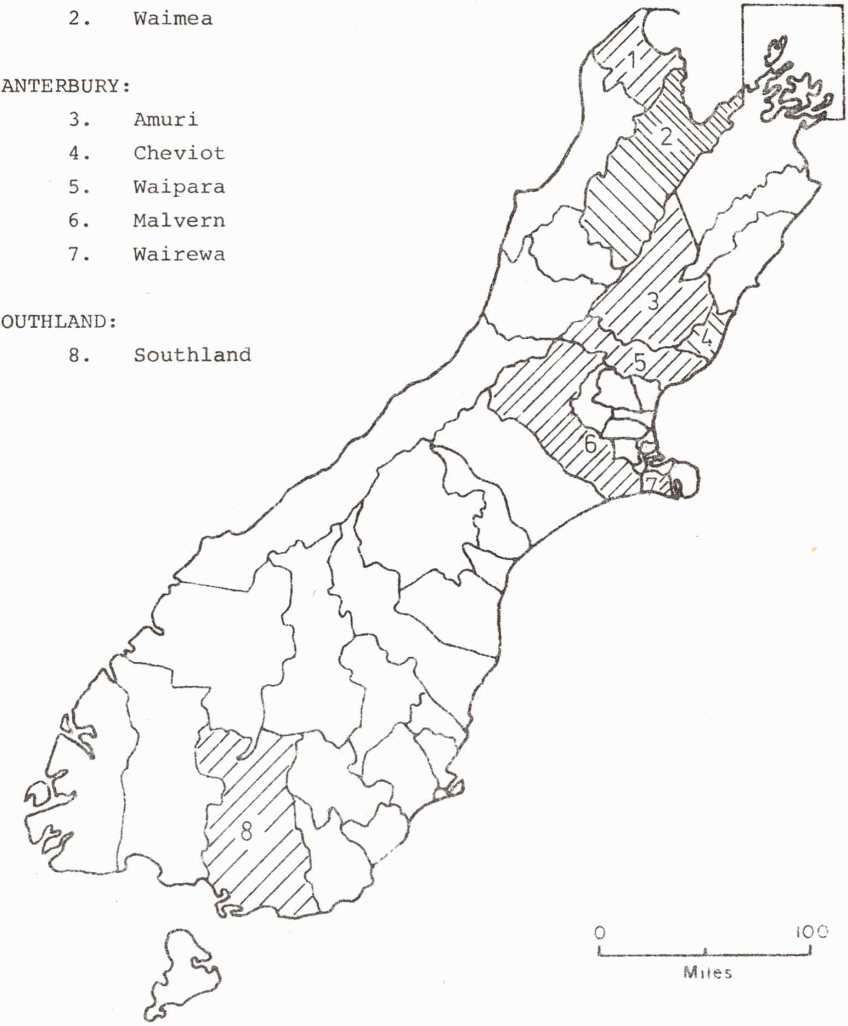
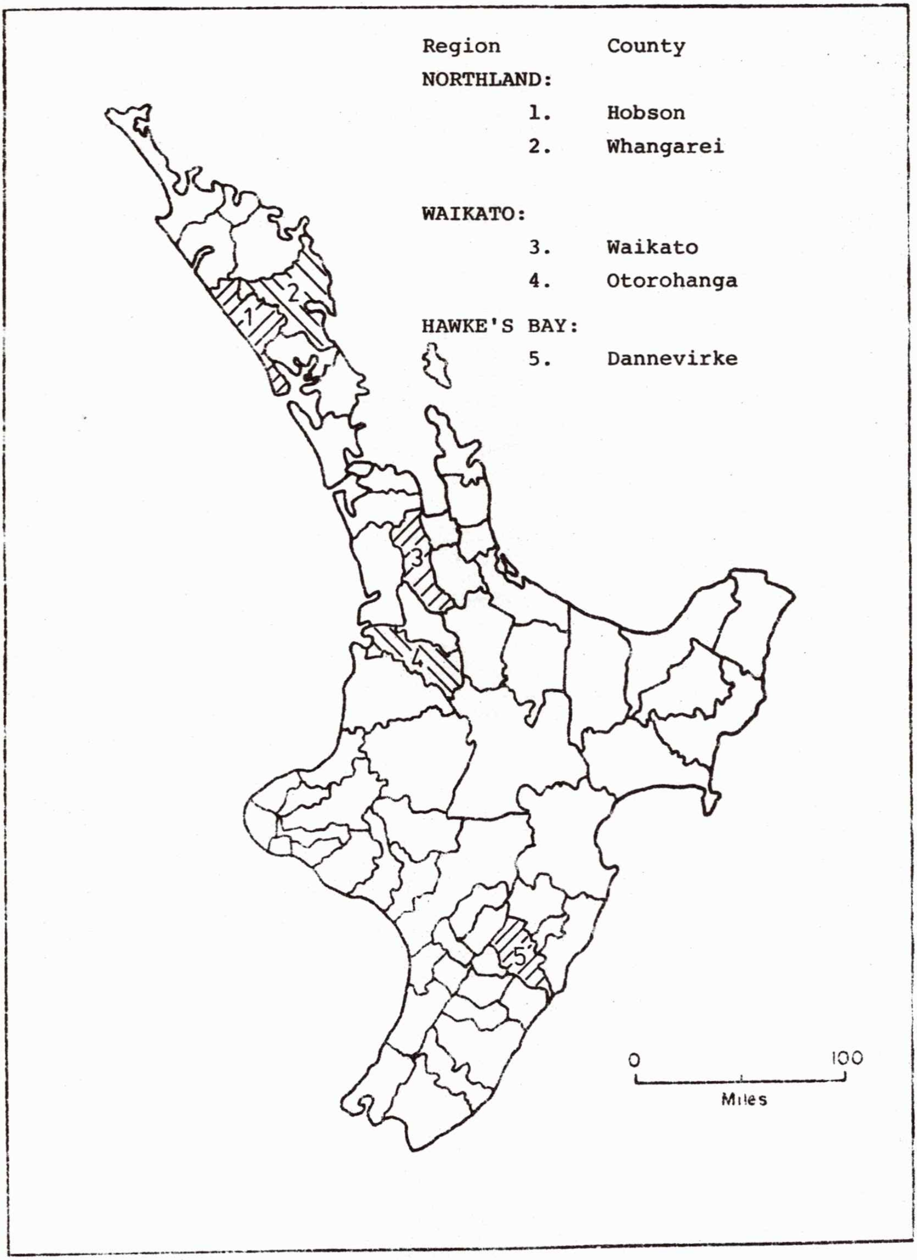

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
0
100
Miles

FIGURE A.2

SAMPLING REGIONS AND COUNTIES: NORTH ISLAND


Region
County
NORTHLAND:
1. Hobson
2. Whangarei
WAIKATO:
3. Waikato
4. Otorohanga
HAWKE'S BAY:
5. Dannevirke
1
2
3
4
5
0
100
Miles

and Waipukurau (our first choices) because the Women's Division is stronger and more active in the Dannevirke County.

SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE

Because of the constraints imposed by existing resources in terms of time and money, it was decided in the formulation of this study that a sample of 1000 rural women would be studied. This figure was not chosen arbitrarily; rather, it was based on the supposition that interviewing 1000 women would be a manageable task and this number of respondents would permit us to look at a large number of parameters when analysing the data. Our target of 1000 respondents was nearly achieved; 934 respondents were in fact interviewed.

A systematic list sample was used in this study. The sample was chosen using 1974 county electoral rolls. These rolls contain the name and address of electors with ratepayer qualifications. The rolls include some women who are non-resident ratepayers, but we excluded these for sampling purposes. In other words, our sample was drawn from women resident in the county at the time the electoral roll was compiled.

The rolls also include some women who live in built up areas of 1000 or more people. These women are not defined as rural for purposes of this study, and consequently they were excluded from the sample.

The sample was selected by enumerating the names of all the women on a particular electoral roll after excluding those who are non-resident or who reside in a built-up area of 1000 or more. Then by a completely random process, a quota of women was selected for each county.

The quota selected in each county was determined by the availability of Women's Division members as interviewers and the region in which the county was located. A sample of 200 women was to be drawn from each region. In the case of the Southland region, only one county was involved, and all the women were selected from this county. However, in the Nelson region, two counties were used for sampling purposes and as Table A.1 reveals a larger sample was drawn in Waimea than Golden Bay. The availability of more interviewers in Waimea accounted for this. Similarly, in Dannevirke County of Hawke's Bay, a sample of only 103 was drawn as this number was all the available interviewers could handle.

Alternatives to using a systematic list sample were thoroughly considered, and in all instances the balance of advantages over disadvantages did not turn out as favourably as in the case of the systematic list sample. For example, a purely random sample of all rural women would produce a truly representative sample, but the time and costs of securing such a sample were prohibitive. Extensive use of cluster-locality sampling, as is often done in urban studies, was also considered unsuitable because of the vast distances interviewers would have to travel to make initial contact with respondents who then might decline to be interviewed.

TABLE A.1

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE SIZE AND RESPONSE RATE

County	Sample Selected	Sample Interviewed Number	Sample Interviewed %	Refusals Number	Refusals %	Not Available Number	Not Available %
Southland	219	164	74.9	36	16.4	19	8.7
Wairewa	16	14	87.5	2	12.5	0	0.0
Malvern	132	100	75.8	12	9.1	20	15.2
Waipara-Amuri-Cheviot	106	94	88.7	6	5.7	6	5.7
Golden Bay	82	69	84.2	5	6.1	8	9.8
Waimea	124	107	86.3	12	9.7	5	4.0
Dannevirke	103	93	90.3	4	3.9	6	5.8
Otorohanga	87	75	86.2	5	5.7	7	8.0
Waikato	115	87	75.7	21	18.3	7	6.1
Whangarei	91	69	75.8	10	11.0	12	13.2
Hobson	74	62	83.8	8	10.8	4	5.4
TOTAL	1149	934	81.3	121	10.5	94	8.2

DEVELOPMENT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire comprised seven sections:

1. Background information. This section covered such items as age, marital status, husband's occupation, place of birth, and length of residence in present area. A number of questions to do with cost and quality of living in rural areas were also included.

2. The farm. This section sought information on ownership of the farm, the respondent's share in it, the size and type of farm, and respondent's contribution to decision-making and running of the property.

3. Work experience. Included in here were questions on occupational history and employment preferences.

4. Children's schooling. This covered the number of children at primary and secondary school, type of school attended and travel arrangements.

5. Services and amenities. This covered the distance to town and to facilities for health, education, shopping and church, also the availability of transport, and time spent travelling.

6. Social interaction. This section covered contact with relatives and friends.

7. Leisure and community activities. Included here were questions to do with spare-time pursuits and with voluntary organisations and community welfare bodies.

A preliminary draft of the questionnaire was tested, along with the research procedures, by a pilot study carried out in the spring of 1974 in three counties in North Canterbury. Ninety-three interviews were completed for this study, involving twenty-seven interviewers from the North Canterbury Province of the Women's Division. On the basis of the experience gained from the pilot it was possible to polish the wording of the questionnaire to eliminate ambiguities and to prune it of superfluous questions. The experience in the pilot was also valuable in planning the research procedure for the main survey.

The final questions and wording of the questionnaire were decided in consultation between a national committee of the Women's Division and the research team. Together we tried to produce a questionnaire that would cover our various interests and yet not take more than forty minutes to administer, for we were aware that a longer interview schedule would detract from reliability by tiring the respondent. The final questionnaire was therefore a compromise of interests and logistics.

THE ORGANISATION OF THE SURVEY

The interviews were conducted by members of Women's Division branches in the survey areas. These branches were requested to provide volunteers to conduct up to 200 interviews (normally four per volunteer) and who would meet their own travelling expenses consequent to the survey. Also the Women's Division agreed to arrange places for training sessions run by a member of the project team for the volunteers in each county.

Altogether 247 women in the various counties volunteered to interview for the survey. The first training sessions were held in Northland - in Dargaville and Whangarei - just after the middle of June 1975. These were followed by the Southland sessions in Winton and Invercargill. In July training of volunteers took place in Dannevirke in Southern Hawke's Bay, in Otorohanga and Hamilton in the Waikato counties, and in Darfield, Waiau and Christchurch for the Canterbury interviewers. The sessions for the Nelson volunteers were held in Takaka and Motupiko in early August.

The training sessions lasted either a whole day or two half days. In these sessions the purpose of the survey was outlined, the questionnaire discussed and instruction was given on the conducting of interviews.

Each volunteer was given a set of notes on interviewing. In most of these sessions the volunteers conducted 'dummy' interviews to practice techniques and overcome difficulties. At the end of the briefing each volunteer was given the names and addresses of the respondents she was to contact and interview.

In the same week as the training sessions were held a letter was sent to the women selected for the sample. This letter explained the nature of the project, asked for the respondent's co-operation and indicated that an interviewer would ring for an appointment. The interviewers were asked to contact the respondents within five days of being given the names and to arrange a suitable time for the interview. When respondents could not be traced, either by the initial letter or by the interviewer, a replacement name was provided and a new contact letter sent. The interviewers were provided with stamped, addressed envelopes to post individual completed questionnaires to the Department of Sociology at the University of Canterbury. The name of the respondent did not appear anywhere on the questionnaire, thus precluding the possibility of any breech of confidentiality.

In Canterbury close contact was maintained between the interviewers and the person who conducted the training sessions throughout the interviewing period, In other counties, the 'trainer' stayed in the area for one or two weeks after the last session to provide replacement names and assist with any problems connected with the survey. After this a local organiser in the counties was given a list of names from which to draw any replacements necessary. She was also given a supply of contact letters to send to the new respondents.

Volunteer interviewers reported that visits for interviews took about an hour because of hospitality offered and the informal conversation that preceeded and followed the interview itself. They reported interest and co-operation from respondents in the vast majority of cases. Consequently, most interviewers found it a rewarding experience.

At the conclusion of the survey a letter of thanks was sent to each of the interviewers.

Following the collection of the completed questionnaires, the research team met regularly to discuss the progress of the analysis and to decide upon coding procedures, re-coding of certain variables, and the nature of the analysis to follow. The report was written collectively, with each member of the team having the opportunity to comment on and criticise the draft of each chapter, and all finally agreeing upon the final product.

APPENDIX B

TABLE 20.1

COMPARISON OF AGE GROUPS IN REGIONS
% BY AGE GROUP IN A GIVEN REGION

Region	55 or over	25 - 54	Under 25	Total	N
Southland	19.5	72.6	7.9	100.0	164
Canterbury	23.7	70.0	6.3	100.0	207
Nelson	23.9	69.3	6.8	100.0	176
Southern Hawke's Bay	18.5	73.9	7.6	100.0	92
Waikato	14.4	79.4	6.3	100.1	160
Northland	21.4	74.8	3.8	100.0	131
TOTALS	20.5	73.0	6.5	100.0	930

TABLE 20.2

COMPARISON OF SCHOOL EDUCATION AND AGE GROUPS

	% Secondary Schooling					
Age Group	None	Till and including S.C.	Above S.C.	Not Specified	Total	N
55 or over	37.7	38.2	22.0	2.1	100.0	191
25 - 54	9.9	61.6	28.1	0.3	99.9	679
Less than 25	-	61.7	38.3	-	100.0	60
TOTAL						930

TABLE 20.3

COMPARISON OF FURTHER EDUCATION AND AGE GROUPS

	% Further Education/Training								
Age Group	None	Degree	Teaching	Nursing	Sectarial	Other	Not Specified	Total	N
55 or over	70.2	1.6	8.9	7.3	2.6	7.9	1.5	100.0	191
25 - 54	55.4	1.3	11.0	13.8	8.2	9.0	1.2	99.9	679
Less than 25	65.0	1.7	8.3	6.7	10.0	8.3	-	100.0	60
No response									4
TOTAL	59.0	1.4	104	12.0	7.2	8.2	1.2	99.9	934

TABLE 20.4

COMPARISON OF RESPONDENTS' FURTHER EDUCATION IN THE SURVEY REGIONS

	% Qualification							
Region	No Further Education	Degree	Teaching	Nursing	Other	No Response	Total	N
Southland	68.9	1.8	8.5	9.8	11.0	-	100.0	164
Canterbury	55.3	1.0	9.6	13.5	18.2	2.4	100.0	208
Nelson	60.2	-	9.7	9.7	20.4	-	100.0	176
Southern Hawke's Bay	60.9	2.2	8.7	13.0	14.1	1.1	100.0	93
Waikato	51.2	3.1	14.2	13.0	16.0	2.5	100.0	162
Northland	59.5	0.8	12.2	13.7	13.0	0.8	100.0	131
TOTALS	59.0	1,4	10.5	12.0	15.9	1.2	100.0	934

TABLE 20.5

COMPARISON OF RESPONDENTS' FURTHER EDUCATION AND PRESENT EMPLOYMENT

	% Type Employment					
Further Education	Not Employed	Full time	Other	No Response	Total	N
None	82.0	5.8	11.8	0.4	100.0	551
Degree	53.8	23.1	23.1	-	100.0	13
Teaching	55.1	18.4	25.5	1.0	100.0	98
Nursing	71.4	6.3	22.3	-	100.0	112
Other	73.4	10.1	15.4	1.0	99.9	149
No response	63.6	9.1	18.2	9.1	100.0	11
TOTAL	76.0	8.1	15.3	0.5	99.9	934

TABLE 20.6

COMPARISON OF LABOUR EMPLOYED ON FARMS IN THE SURVEY REGIONS

	% Labour Employed					
Region	Full-time	Other Labour	No Labour	No Response	Total	N
Southland	23.0	63.5	10.6	2.9	100.0	104
Canterbury	49.2	35.0	13.3	2.5	100.0	120
Nelson	21.3	46.1	30.3	2.2	99.9	89
Southern Hawke's Bay	41.6	41.6	13.0	3.9	100.1	77
Waikato	31.5	43.8	20.0	4.6	99.9	131
Northland	28.4	46.6	22.7	2.3	100.0	88
TOTAL	32.8	45.8	18.1	3.3	100.0	609

TABLE 20.7

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION OF RESPONDENTS

Denomination	%	Number
Anglican	37.4	349
Presbyterian	33.6	314
Roman Catholic	11.5	107
Methodist	7.3	68
Bretheren	1.7	16
Baptist	0.9	8
Seventh Day Adventist	0.6	6
Jehovah's Witness	0.5	5
Lutheran	0.4	4
Mormon	0.4	4
Church of Christ	0.3	3
Christadelphian	0.3	3
Christian Fellowship	0.2	2
Salvation Army	0.2	2
Quaker	0.1	1
Christian Scientist	0.1	1
Pentecostal	0.1	1
Little Kirk of Scotland	0.1	1
Litterian	0.1	1
Sikh	0.1	1
Unspecified Christian	0.6	6
None	2.7	25
Not Specified	0.6	6
TOTAL	99.8	934

TABLE 20.8

"IDEAL" AREA DESCRIPTION

(Answer to Question: "If you could move now, what kind of area would you like to live in?")

Type of Area	%	Number
Would not like to move	68.1	636
Isolated rural	1.2	11
Rural	12.6	118
Small town	9.4	88
Large town/city	3.4	32
Metropolitan	1.4	13
Overseas	0.4	4
Rural but close to urban	1.6	15
Coast	1.3	12
Not sure, don't know, not specified	0.5	5
TOTAL	99.9	934

TABLE 20.9

REASON FOR MOVING TO "IDEAL" AREA

Reason	%	Number
Would not like to move	73.9	690
Better access to services and amenities	7.7	72
Closer to family	2.7	25
Bigger, better farm	2.2	21
Climate, more hills, flat land, etc.	3.1	29
Children's education	1.1	10
Prefer (more) rural area	1.9	18
Work opportunities for self, children	1.8	17
Health	0.2	2
Like to return where brought up	0.3	3
Other	1.9	18
Don't know	3.1	29
TOTAL	99.9	934

NOTE: The "other" category includes such reasons as "to experience other ways of life", "business reasons", "to be independent" and vacating the farm for children to use.

TABLE 20.10

RETIREMENT INTENTIONS

(Answer to Question: "When you or your husband retire, where do you intend to live?")

Intention	%	Number
Continue to live in the same house	26.8	250
In another house in the same area	11.1	104
On this farm but in a new house	3.6	34
Another rural area	6.6	62
Small town	1.3	12
Urban area	12.2	114
Aready retired	7.2	67
Other	1.7	16
Don't know/ not specified	29.4	275
TOTAL	99.9	934

NOTE: The "other" category includes answers like "buy a caravan and travel around", "overseas", "a tourist resort."

TABLE 20.11

REASON FOR MOVING ON RETIREMENT

Reason	%	Number
Better amenities and services	8.7	81
To be near the sea, lakes/ prefers the climate, etc.	7.0	65
To vacate the house for children, other employee	3.9	36
To avoid isolation/be nearer children and family	1.8	17
Smaller house/garden	1.2	11
Change from farming/ will sell the farm	0.9	9
Other	2.5	24
Already retired/no reason given	35.4	330
Not going to move	38.7	361
TOTAL	100.1	934

NOTE: The "other" category includes answers like "contact with different kind of people", "easier way of life", "owns land elsewhere".

TABLE 20.12

OPINIONS ON COST OF LIVING IN RURAL AREAS

Rural cost of living considered:	%	Number
Higher than urban	36.7	343
Lower than urban	27.3	255
About the same as urban	30.7	287
Don't know/not specified	5.3	49
TOTAL	100.0	934

TABLE 20.13

REASON WHY COST OF LIVING IN RURAL AREAS IS CONSIDERED HIGHER

Reason	%*	Number
Freight, transport of goods	63.6	218
Travelling distance, petrol costs	34.7	119
Lack of services and amenities	0.9	3
Don't know/not specified	0.9	3
TOTAL	100.1	343

* Of those who consider cost of living higher in rural areas.

TABLE 20.14

REASON WHY COST OF LIVING IN RURAL AREAS IS CONSIDERED LOWER

Reason	%*	Number
Supply of produce	64.3	164
Houses, rates cheaper/ free house	15.7	40
Not so easy to spend money in the country	14.5	37
Unspecified things cheaper, better	2.0	5
Don't know/not specified	3.5	9
TOTAL	100.0	255

* Of those who consider cost of living lower in rural areas.

TABLE 30.1

CHARACTERISATION OF AREA IN WHICH RESPONDENT WAS BROUGHT UP BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE

Type of Area	Farm Residents		Non-Farm Residents	
	Number	%	Number	%
Isolated rural	79	13.1	45	13.6
Rural	278	46.1	134	40.6
Small town	115	19.1	71	21.5
Large town/city	46	7.6	36	10.9
Metropolitan	68	11.3	35	10.6
Overseas	13	2.2	9	2.7
Urban/rural	3	0.5	0	0 .0
No response	1	0.1	1	0.1
TOTAL	603	100	331	100

TABLE 30.2

NUMBER OF RELATIVES LIVING IN HOUSEHOLD OF RESPONDENTS

Number of Relatives	Distribution of Respondents	
	Number	%
1	24	2.6
2	6	0.6
3	1	0.1
4	2	0.2
No relatives living in household	894	95.7
No response	7	0.7
TOTAL	934	99.9

TABLE 30.3

NUMBER OF WORKERS LIVING PERMANENTLY IN HOUSEHOLD OF RESPONDENT

Number of Workers	Distribution of Respondents Number	%
1	30	3.2
2	1	0.1
No workers living in household	898	96.1
No response	5	0.5
TOTAL	934	99.9

TABLE 30.4

DISTRIBUTION OF HANDICAPPED PEOPLE LIVING IN HOUSEHOLD OF RESPONDENT

Handicapped Person	Distribution of Respondents Number	%
Respondent	6	0.6
Husband	8	0.9
Child	24	2.6
Parent	11	1.2
Other adult	8	0.9
No one	865	92.6
No response	12	1.3
TOTAL	934	100.1

TABLE 30.5

HELP WITH HOUSEWORK BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE

Response Category	Farm Residents Number	%	Non-Farm Residents Number	%
No help	257	42.5	126	38.2
Husband	90	14.9	70	21.2
Husband only sometimes	27	4.5	6	1.8
Children	84	13.9	34	10.3
Husband and children	122	20.2	70	21.2
Paid help	11	1.8	8	2.4
Others	3	0.5	6	1.8
Lives at home	3	0.5	2	0.6
No response	7	1.2	8	2.4
TOTAL	604	100	330	100

$X^2 = 18.928$, df = 8, sign. = 0.015

TABLE 30.6

HELP IN AN ILLNESS OR EMERGENCY BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE

Response Category	Farm Residents Number	%	Non-Farm Residents Number	%
No help	10	1.7	6	1.8
Husband	227	37.6	109	33.0
Children	38	6.3	25	7.6
Relatives	94	15.6	43	13.0
Friends and neighbours	21	3.5	24	7.3
Husband and others	177	29.3	99	30.0
Children and others	2	0.3	1	0.3
Others (relatives, friends and neighbours)	15	2.5	6	1.8
Paid help	10	1.7	7	2.1
Don't know	6	1.0	1	0.3
No response	4	0.7	9	2.7
TOTAL	604	100.2	330	99.9

$X^2 = 17.709$, df = 10, sign. = 0.060

TABLE 30.7

HELP FOR LONELINESS AND DEPRESSION BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE

Response Category	Farm Residents		Non-Farm Residents	
	Number	%	Number	%
Not been lonely	445	73.7	239	72.4
Tranquilisers	20	3.3	14	4.2
Friends and neighbours	22	3.6	12	3.6
Activity - joined clubs etc.	21	3.5	11	3.3
Overcame it herself	21	3.5	10	3.0
Family	21	3.5	9	2.7
No help	11	1.8	8	2.4
Not needed help	10	1.7	4	1.2
Religion, family, friends	11	1.8	2	0.6
Medical help	6	1.0	4	1.2
Visiting	5	0.8	2	0.6
Holiday	2	0.3	0	0.0
No response	9	1.5	15	4.5
TOTAL	604	100	330	99.7

$X^2 = 13.074$, df = 12, sign. = 0.363

TABLE 30.8

HELP FOR LONELINESS AND DEPRESSION BY AGE

Response Category	Age 18-35 yrs Number	%	36-55 yrs Number	%	56 + yrs Number	%
Not been lonely	233	72.4	319	73.5	127	73.8
Tranquilisers	14	4.3	18	4.1	2	1.2
Friends and neighbours	12	3.7	14	3.2	7	4.1
Activity - joined clubs etc.	13	4.0	13	3.0	6	3.5
Overcame it herself	8	2.5	16	3.7	7	4.1
Family	14	4.3	12	2.8	4	2.3
No help	7	2.2	5	1.2	7	4.1
Not needed help	7	2.2	5	1.2	2	1.2
Religion, family, friends	0	0.0	11	2.5	2	1.2
Medical help	3	0.9	6	1.4	1	0.6
Visiting	3	0.9	3	0.7	1	0.6
Holiday	1	0.3	1	0.2	0	0 0
No response	7	2.2	11	2.5	6	3.5
TOTAL	322	99.9	434	100	172	100.2

$x^2 = 25.139$, df = 24, sign. = 0.398

TABLE 30.9

DECISIONS ON FAMILY EXPENDITURE BY FARM AND NON FARM RESIDENCE

Response Category	Farm Residence Number	%	Non-Farm Residence Number	%
Joint (with husband and/or children)	486	80.5	220	66.7
Self	91	15.1	85	25.8
Husband	13	2.2	13	3.9
Other	7	1.1	4	1.2
No response	6	1.0	8	2.4
TOTAL	604	99.9	330	100

X^2 = 24.250, df = 6, sign. = 0.000

TABLE 30.10

DECISIONS ON FAMILY EXPENDITURE BY AGE

	Age					
Response Category	18-35 yrs Number	%	36-55 yrs Number	%	56 + yrs Number	%
Joint (with husband and/or children)	261	81.1	333	76.7	107	62.2
Self	40	12.4	84	19.4	52	30.2
Husband	10	3.1	12	2.8	4	2.3
Other	5	1.6	3	0.7	3	1.8
No response	6	1.9	2	0.5	6	3.5
TOTAL	322	100.1	434	100.1	172	100

X^2 =42.734, df = 12, sign. = 0.000

TABLE 30.11

DECISIONS ON CHILDREN'S EDUCATION AMONG RURAL WOMEN WITH SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE

Response Category	Farm Residents		Non-Farm Residents	
	Number	%	Number	%
Joint (with husband and/or children)	436	86.6	168	74.3
Self	39	7.7	33	14.6
Husband	9	1.7	9	3.9
Other	8	1.5	5	2.2
No response	11	2.1	11	4.8
TOTAL	503	99.6	226	99.8

X^2 = 43.513, df = 5, sign. = 0.000

TABLE 30.12

DECISIONS ON CHILDREN'S EDUCATION AMONG RURAL WOMAN WITH SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN BY AGE

Response Category	Age					
	18-35 yrs		36-55 yrs		56 + yrs	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Joint (with husband and/or children)	228	86.3	309	82.1	62	74.6
Self	21	7.9	38	10.1	13	15.6
Husband	5	1.8	11	2.9	1	1.2
Other	3	1.1	10	2.6	0	0.0
No response	7	2.6	8	2.1	7	8.4
TOTAL	264	99.7	376	99.8	83	99.8

X^2 = 124.500, df = 10, sign. = 0.000

TABLE 30.13

DECISIONS OF FARM RESIDENTS ON THE DAY TO DAY RUNNING OF THE FARM BY AGE

Response Category	Age of Farm Residents					
	18-35 yrs		36-55 yrs		56 + yrs	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Joint (husband and wife)	27	12.3	48	16.6	6	6.5
Self	1	0.4	6	2.0	4	4.3
Husband	136	62.1	197	68.4	38	41.3
Husband's employer	10	4.5	2	0.6	0	0.0
Husband and others	24	10.9	21	7.2	8	8.6
Other	9	4.1	10	3.4	22	23.9
No response	12	5.4	4	1.3	14	15.2
TOTAL	219	99.7	288	99.5	92	99.8

$X^2 = 112.930$, df = 20, sign. = 0.000

TABLE 30.14

DECISIONS OF FARM RESIDENTS ON SEASONAL PLANNING BY AGE

Response Category	Age of Farm Residents					
	18-35 yrs		36-55 yrs		56 + yrs	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Joint (husband and wife)	27	12.3	55	19.0	7	7.6
Self	1	0.4	6	2.0	3	3.2
Husband	128	58.4	189	65.6	38	41.3
Husband's employer	13	5.9	1	0.3	0	0.0
Husband and others	28	12.7	23	7.9	8	8.6
Other	9	4.1	9	3.1	22	23.9
No response	13	5.9	5	1.7	14	15.2
TOTAL	219	99.7	288	99.6	92	99.8

$X^2 = 121.238$, df = 20, sign. = 0.000

TABLE 30.15

DECISIONS OF FARM RESIDENTS ON FARM FINANCE AND INVESTMENT BY AGE

Response Category	Age of Farm Residents					
	18-35 yrs		36-55 yrs		56 + yrs	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Joint (husband and wife)	69	31.5	119	41.4	15	16.3
Self	2	0.9	3	1.0	4	4.3
Husband	73	33.3	127	44.2	33	35.8
Husband's employer	22	10.0	5	1.7	0	0.0
Husband and others	29	13.2	20	6.9	8	8.6
Other	10	4.5	8	2.7	18	19.5
No response	14	6.3	5	1.7	14	15.2
TOTAL	219	99.7	287	99.6	92	99.7

X^2= 118.794, df = 20, sign. = 0.000

TABLE 30.16

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY CHILDREN AND RELATIVES' VISITS TO RESPONDENT IN LAST WEEK

Number of Visits	Distribution of Respondents	
	Number	%
1	140	15.0
2	87	9.3
3	45	4.8
4	36	3.9
5	21	2.2
6	13	1.4
7	6	0.6
8	2	0.2
9	3	0.3
10	4	0.4
11 - 20	2	0.2
Visits but number not specified	80	8.6
No one	488	52.2
Sick/No response	7	0.7
TOTAL	934	99.8

TABLE 30.17

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY RESPONDENT'S VISITS TO CHILDREN AND RELATIVES IN LAST WEEK

Number of Visits	Distribution of Respondents	
	Number	%
1	193	20.7
2	101	10.8
3	41	4.4
4	13	1.4
5	2	0.2
6	0	0.0
7	1	0.1
8	1	0.1
9	3	0.3
10	0	0.0
11 - 20	4	0.4
Visited but number not specified	44	4.7
No one	522	55.8
Sick/No response	10	1.0
TOTAL	934	99.9

TABLE 30.18

ASPECT OF LIFE MOST SATISFYING

Responses	Distribution of Responses Number	%
Family (marriage, children, etc)	688	45.4
Independence, freedom	101	6.7
Hobbies, clubs, sport	89	5.9
Rural life - peacefulness, open spaces	85	5.6
Outdoor activites (e.g. horse riding)	72	4.8
Friendships	72	4.8
Life generally satisfying	54	3.6
Working on farm	52	3.4
Gardening	51	3.4
Work (non-farm)	45	3.0
Helping others	43	2.8
Pride in own home, farm	42	2.8
Church	32	2.1
Helping husband	29	1.9
Financial success	16	1.1
Miscellaneous	43	2.8
TOTAL	1514	100.1

TABLE 40.1

OPINION ON QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE BY MARITAL STATUS

Opinion on Quality of rural life	Marital Status									
	Married		Widowed		Divorced or Separated		Never Married		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Better than urban	694	84	44	77	8	100	20	69	768	83
About the same or don't know	126	15	12	21	0	-	8	28	146	16
Worse than urban	10	1	1	2	0	-	1	3	12	1
TOTAL	830	100	57	100	8	100	29	100	926	100

TABLE 40.2

OPINION ON QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE BY RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION

Opinion on quality of rural life	Religious Denomination															
	Anglican		Presbyterian		Roman Catholic		Methodist		Mormons		Other Denominations		None		Totals	
	No.	%	No,	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Better than urban	294	84.7	257	82.4	84	79.2	54	80.6	12	66.7	40	87.0	22	88.0	768	82.9
About same or don't know	49	14.1	52	16.7	19	17.9	12	17.9	6	33.3	6	13.0	2	8.0	146	15.8
Worse than urban	4	1.2	3	1.0	3	2.8	1	1.5	0	-	0	-	1	4.0	12	1.3
TOTAL	347	100.0	312	100.1	106	99.9	67	100.0	18	100.0	46	100.0	25	100.0	926	100.0

TABLE 40.3

OPINION ON QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE BY TYPE OF AREA WHERE RESPONDENT WAS BROUGHT UP

Opinion on Quality of Rural Life	Type of Area										Total	
	Isolated Rural		Rural		Small Town		City		Not Specified			
	No	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Better than urban	106	84.8	338	84.9	155	79.5	146	80.2	23	88.5	768	82.9
About the same or don't know	18	14.4	56	14.1	38	19.5	31	17.0	3	11.5	146	15.8
Worse than urban	1	0.8	4	1.0	2	1.0	5	2.8	0	-	12	1.3
TOTAL	125	100.0	398	100.0	195	100.0	182	100.0	26	100.0	926	100.0

TABLE 40.4

OPINION ON QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE BY NUMBER OF HOURS WATCHING TELEVISION

Opinion on Quality of Rural Life	Hours per week watching Television														Total	
	None		1 - 5		6 - 10		11 - 15		16 - 20		21+		Not Specified			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Better than urban	50	87.7	73	82.0	153	83.6	171	82.2	117	85.4	177	79.5	27	87.1	768	82.9
About the same or don't know	6	10.5	15	16.8	28	15.3	35	16.8	20	14.6	38	17.2	4	12.9	146	15.8
Worse than urban	1	1.8	1	1.1	2	1.1	2	1.0	0	-	6	2.7	0	-	12	1.3
TOTALS	57	100.0	89	100.0	183	100.0	208	100.0	137	100.0	222	100.0	31	100.0	926	100.0

TABLE 40.5

OPINION ON QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE BY WHETHER RESPONDENT WORKS ON FARM

(Percentage of farm women who answered Question 49: "Do you work on the farm?")

Opinion on Quality of Rural Life	Type of work on farm: Regular		Seasonal		Occasional		None		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Better than urban	120	88.9	35	92.1	250	83.6	100	81.3	505	86.3
About the same or don't know	13	9.6	3	7.9	48	16.1	21	17.1	75	12.8
Worse than urban life	2	1.5	0	-	1	0.3	2	1.6	5	0.9
TOTAL	135	100.0	38	100.0	299	100.0	123	100.0	585	100.0

TABLE 40.6

OPINION ON QUALITY OF RURAL LIFE BY WHETHER PAID FOR WORK ON FARM

(Percentage of farm women who answered Question 52: "Do you actually receive money for this work?")

Opinion on Quality of Rural Life	Does not work		Paid		Partly Paid		Not Paid		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Better than urban	94	81.7	71	78.9	53	91.4	273	87.2	491	85.2
About the same or don't know	19	16.5	19	21.1	5	8.6	37	11.8	80	13.9
Worse than urban	2	1.7	0	-	0	-	3	1.0	5	0.9
TOTAL	115	100.0	90	100.0	58	100.0	313	100.0	576	100.0

TABLE 40.7

REPORTED AVAILABILITY OF PRE-SCHOOLS BY COUNTY SURVEYED
(Responses to Question 80: "Are there pre-school facilities in your area?")

County	Yes		No		No response or Don't know		Totals	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Southland	71	43	35	21	58	36	164	100
Malvern	43	43	7	7	50	50	100	100
Wairewa	6	43	1	7	7	50	14	100
Waipara	18	39	5	11	23	50	46	100
Amuri	14	61	2	9	7	30	23	100
Cheviot	16	64	2	8	7	28	25	100
Golden Bay	30	44	12	17	27	39	69	100
Waimea	42	41	24	22	41	39	107	100
Dannevirke	38	41	27	29	28	30	93	100
Otorohanga	38	51	8	11	29	39	75	100
Waikato	61	70	5	6	21	23	87	100
Hobson	23	37	18	29	21	34	62	100
Whangarei	39	57	3	4	27	39	69	100
TOTAL	439	47	149	16	346	37	934	100

TABLE 40.8

FREQUENCY OF VISITS TO NEAREST TOWN AND LARGE CITY BY FARM, NON-FARM RESIDENCE

	Nearest Town						Large City					
	Farm		Non-Farm		Total Sample		Farm		Non-Farm		Total Sample	
Frequency of visits	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Daily	40	7.5	38	15.1	78	10.0	7	1.2	7	2.2	14	1.5
Several times a week	146	27.4	55	21.9	201	25.7	28	4.8	16	5.0	44	4.8
Weekly	173	32.5	71	28.3	244	31.2	79	13.4	42	13.2	121	13.3
Every 2-3 weeks	66	12.4	27	10.8	93	11.9	93	15.8	48	15.0	141	15.5
Monthly	48	9.0	28	11.2	76	9.7	158	26.8	71	22.3	229	25.2
Every two months	13	2.4	6	2.4	19	2.4	64	10.9	41	12.9	105	11.6
Every three months	8	1.5	8	3.2	16	2.0	42	7.1	31	9.7	73	8.0
Every four months							28	4.8	14	4.4	42	4.6
Every six months	3	0.6	1	0.4	4	0.5	30	5.1	13	4.1	43	4.7
Once/twice a year	2	0.4	1	0.4	3	0.4	25	4.2	14	4.4	39	4.3
Not specified*	33	6.2	16	6.4	49	6.2	35	5.9	22	6.9	57	6.3
TOTAL	532	99.9	251	100.1	783	100.0	589	100.0	319	100.1	908	99.9

* Occasionally, seldom, rarely, when necessary, varies.

TABLE 40.9

REPORTED AVAILABILITY OF EMPLOYMENT BY REGION SURVEYED

Region	No Response		None or Don't know		Yes, Not Specified		Yes, Full-time		Yes, Part-time		Totals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Southland	11	6.7	85	51.8	62	37.8	1	0.6	5	3.0	164	100.0
Canterbury	11	5.3	106	51.0	64	30.8	14	6.7	13	6.3	208	100.0
Nelson	5	2.8	63	35.8	17	9.7	35	19.9	56	31.8	176	100.0
Southern Hawke's Bay	1	1.1	45	48.4	37	39.8	7	7.5	3	3.2	93	100.0
Waikato	6	3.7	74	45.7	51	31.5	16	9.9	15	9.3	162	100.0
Northland	6	4.6	79	60.3	27	20.6	7	5.3	12	9.2	131	100.0
TOTAL	40	4.3	452	48.4	258	27.6	80	8.6	104	11.1	934	100.0

TABLE 50.1

WHETHER RESPONDENTS DO COMMUNITY WORK BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
Do community work	39.3	50.7	35.2	38.7	53.8	35.7	44.9	39.5	39.6	46.7	40.4
Do not do community work	60.7	49.3	64.8	61.3	46.3	64.3	55.1	60.5	60.4	53.3	59.6
TOTAL	100.0 N=163	100.0 N=207	100.0 N=176	100.0 N=93	100.1 N=160	100.0 N=129	100.0 N=599	100.0 N=329	100.0 N=321	100.0 N=430	100.0 N=171

* X^2 = 21.385, df = 5, sign = 0.00 ** X^2 = 2.306, df = 1, sign = 0.13 *** X^2 = 4.493, df = 2, sign = 0.11

TABLE 50.2

HOURS OF COMMUNITY WORK BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Number of Hours of Community Work per Week	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
1 to 4 hours	45.9	49.5	55.4	64.7	51.8	43.2	49.4	54.3	60.8	47.2	42.2
5 to 9 hours	6.6	9.9	12.3	2.9	10.6	2.3	8.4	8.7	8.8	8.0	9.4
10 or more hours	3.3	5.0	3.1	0.0	7.1	6.8	3.8	6.3	4.8	5.0	3.1
Number unspecified	44.3	35.6	29.2	32.4	30.6	47.7	38.4	30.7	25.6	39.7	45.3
TOTAL	100.1 N=61	100.0 N=101	100.0 N=65	100.0 N=34	100.1 N=85	100.0 N=44	100.0 N=263	100.0 N=127	100.0 N=125	99.9 N=199	100.0 N=64

*X^2 = 15,927, df = 15, sign. = 0.39 **X^2 = 2.981, df = 3, sign. = 0.39 ***X^2 = 10.441, df = 6, sign = 0.11

TABLE 50.3

NUMBER OF TYPES OF COMMUNITY WORK RESPONDENTS DO BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Number of Types of Community work	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
1 type	65.6	60.0	75.8	72.2	53.5	78.3	62.8	70.0	72.4	60.2	66.7
2 types	29.7	35.2	17.7	16.7	23.3	15.2	27.1	20.8	19.7	29.9	21.7
3 or more types	4.7	4.8	6.5	11.1	23.3	6.5	10.0	9.2	7.9	10.0	11.6
TOTAL	100.0 N=64	100.0 N=105	100.0 N=62	100.0 N=36	100.1 N=86	100.0 N=46	99.9 N=269	100.0 N=130	100.0 N=127	100.1 N=201	100.0 N=69

*X^2 = 35.556, df = 10, sign. = 0.00 ***X^2 = 2.169, df = 2, sign. = 0.34 ***X^2 = 6.109, df = 4, sign. = 0.19

TABLE 50.4

WHETHER RESPONDENTS BELONG TO ORGANISATIONS BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
Belong to organisations	85.9	86.0	73.9	86.0	85.7	84.6	87.4	76.3	84.1	84.7	78.4
Do not belong to organisations	14.1	14.0	26.1	14.0	14.3	15.4	12.6	23.7	15.9	15.3	21.6
TOTAL	100.0 N=163	100.0 N=207	100.0 N=176	100.0 N=93	100.0 N=161	100.0 N=130	100.0 N=601	100.0 N=329	100.0 N=321	100.0 N=432	100.0 N=171

*X^2 = 14.545, df = 5, sign. = 0.01 **X^2 = 18.039, df = 1, sign, = 0.00 ***X^2 = 3.782, df = 2,sign. = 0.15

TABLE 50.5

NUMBER OF ORGANISATIONS TO WHICH RESPONDENTS BELONG BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Number of Organisations	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
1 organisation	25.7	15.7	40.0	26.3	26.8	24.5	22.9	32.3	28.1	24.9	23.9
2 organisations	26.4	29.2	29.2	27.5	30.4	37.3	29.5	30.7	30.0	30.3	28.4
3 or 4 organisations	31.4	41.6	22.3	35.0	28.3	33.6	33.1	30.7	33.7	32.2	29.9
5 or more organisations	16.4	13.5	8.5	11.3	14.5	4.5	14.5	6.4	8.1	12.6	17.9
TOTAL	99.9 N=140	100.0 N=178	100.0 N=130	100.1 N=80	100.0 N=138	99.9 N=110	100.0 N=525	100.1 N=251	99.9 N=270	100.0 N=366	100.1 N=134

*X^2 = 39.629, df = 15, sign. = 0.00 **X^2 = 15.606, df = 3, sign.= 0.00***X^2 = 8.801, df = 6, sign = 0.19

TABLE 50.6

NUMBER OF OFFICIAL POSITIONS HELD IN ORGANISATIONS BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Number of Official Positions	South-land	Canter-bury	Nelson	Southern Hawke's Bay	Waikato	North-land	Farm Residents	Non-Farm Residents	18 to 35 years	36 to 55 years	56 years or older
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
1 official position	52.7	55.3	65.1	80.6	50.8	64.8	59.4	59.1	66.7	57.4	47.1
2 official positions	34.5	30.1	17.5	12.9	23.1	25.9	25.4	25.2	25.0	24.5	29.4
3 official positions	9.1	10.7	4.8	3.2	12.3	7.4	9.0	7.8	3.8	10.1	15.7
4 to 6 official positions	0.0	3.9	6.3	0.0	12.3	0.0	3.9	5.2	3.8	4.3	5.9
Number unspecified	3.6	0.0	6.3	3.2	1.5	1.9	2.3	2.6	0.8	3.7	2.0
TOTAL	99.9 N=55	100.0 N=103	100.0 N=63	99.9 N=31	100.0 N=65	100.0 N=54	100.0 N=256	99.9 N=115	100.1 N=132	100.0 N=188	100.1 N=51

*X^2 = 38.105, df = 20, sign. = 0.00 ** X^2 = 0.464, df = 4, sign. = 0.98 ***X^2 = 13.251, df = 8, sign. = 0.10

TABLE 50.7

WHETHER RESPONDENTS WOULD LIKE OTHER KINDS OF ACTIVITIES IN THEIR ORGANISATIONS BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residence %	Non-Farm Residence %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
No other activities desired	84.5	85.5	76.5	83.1	81.5	85.7	82.5	83.3	79.8	83.7	86.3
Other activites desired	15.5	14.5	23.5	16.9	18.5	14.3	17.5	16.7	20.2	16.3	13.7
TOTAL	100.0 N=110	100.0 N=166	100.0 N=132	100.0 N=71	100.0 N=124	100.0 N=105	100.0 N=469	100.0 N=239	100.0 N=247	100.0 N=332	100.0 N=124

* X^2= 5.553, df = 5, sign. = 0.35 ** X^2 = 0.021, df = 1, sign. = 0.89 *** X^2 = 2.869 df = 2, sign. = 0.24

TABLE 50.8

REASONS RESPONDENTS JOIN ORGANISATIONS BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
To be able to relate to others	71.3	58.9	56.2	73.7	65.5	67.6	65.5	62.5	68.3	61.0	65.6
To perform a community service	11.0	23.4	17.7	11.8	18.0	12.0	16.0	17.5	10.3	21.3	16.8
For educational and special interest purposes	9.6	12.0	20.0	6.6	7.2	13.0	10.9	13.1	12.9	9.8	14.5
Other	8.1	5.7	6.2	7.9	9.4	7.4	7.6	6.8	8.5	7.9	3.1
TOTAL	100.0 N=136	100.0 N=175	100.1 N=130	100.0 N=76	100.1 N=139	100.0 N=108	100.0 N=513	99.9 N=251	100.0 N=271	100.0 N=356	100.0 N=131

* X^2 = 28.887, df = 15, sign. = 0.02 ** X^2 = 1.349 df = 3, sign. = 0.72 *** X^2 = 18.765, df = 6,sign. = 0.00

TABLE 50.9

WHETHER RESPONDENTS PARTICIPATE IN LEISURE ACTIVITIES BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
Participate in leisure activities	88.2	93.7	86.3	90.3	88.1	83.7	89.1	87.8	88.1	87.6	91.8
Do not participate in leisure activities	11.8	6.3	13.7	9.7	11.9	16.3	10.9	12.2	11.9	12.4	8.2
TOTAL	100.0 N=161	100.0 N=207	100.0 N=175	100.0 N=93	100.0 N=160	100.0 N=129	100.0 N=598	100.0 N=327	100.0 N=320	100.0 N=428	100.0 N=171

*X^2 = 9.709,df = 5, sign. = 0.08 ** X^2 = 0.267,df = 1, sign. = 0.61 *** X^2 = 2.224,df = 2, sign. = 0.33

TABLE 50.10

AVAILABILITY OF LEISURE ACTIVITIES BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
All desired activity available	72.3	48.8	70.3	67.4	57.3	64.6	60.1	66.7	56.2	62.9	74.3
Some desired activity not available	27.7	51.2	29.7	32.6	42.7	35.4	39.9	33.3	43.8	37.1	25.7
TOTAL	100.0 N=155	100.0 N=207	100.0 N=175	100.0 N=92	100.0 N=157	100.0 N=130	100.0 N=592	100.0 N=324	100.0 N=317	100.0 N=426	100.0 N=167

*X^2 = 30.381, df = 5, sign. = 0.00 ***X^2 = 3.536, df = 1, sign. = 0.06 ***X^2 = 15.337, df = 2, sign. = 0.00

TABLE 50.11

NUMBER OF HOURS OF TELEVISION VIEWING BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Number of Hours per Week	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years years %
1 to 5 hours	12.2	7.1	10.1	15.9	9.0	14.0	10.1	11.6	8.9	11.9	10.3
6 to 10 hours	22.3	21.7	18.9	19.5	25.5	21.1	23.8	17.8	22.0	23.5	15.5
11 to 15 hours	17.6	28.3	25.8	20.7	27.6	28.1	27.3	21.1	27.8	27.6	14.2
16 to 20 hours	20.3	15.7	17.0	15.9	14.5	13.2	18.2	12.5	19.6	13.7	15.5
21 hours or more	27.7	27.3	28.3	28.0	23.4	23.7	20.6	37.0	21.6	23.3	44.5
TOTAL	100.1 N=148	100.1 N=198	100.1 N=159	100.0 N=82	100.0 N=145	100.1 N=114	100.0 N=543	100.0 N=303	99.9 N=291	100.0 N=395	100.0 N=155

*X^2 = 17.590, df = 20, sign.=0.62 ** X^2 = 29.951, df = 4, sign.= 0.00 *** X^2 = 40.632, df = 8, sign.=0.00

TABLE 50.12

CHURCH ATTENDANCE BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
Attend church	77.1	81.4	53.1	83.0	71.1	53.9	72.1	65.3	61.6	74.4	72.3
Do not attend church	22.9	18.6	46.9	17.0	28.9	46.1	27.9	34.7	38.4	25.6	27.7
TOTAL	100.0 N=157	100.0 N=204	100.0 N=175	100.0 N=88	100.0 N=159	100.0 N=128	100.0 N=591	100.0 N=320	100.0 N=315	100.0 N=426	100.0 N=166

$*X^2 = 62.499$, df = 5, sign. = 0.00 $**X^2 = 4.189$, df = 1, sign. = 0.04 $***X^2 = 14.781$, df = 2, sign. = 0.00

TABLE 50.13

FREQUENCY OF CHURCH ATTENDANCE BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
Once a week	47.9	27.7	31.2	30.1	34.5	30.4	35.0	31.6	29.4	34.1	40.8
Once a fortnight	13.2	17.5	11.8	15.1	9.7	14.5	14.8	12.0	9.8	15.5	15.8
Once a month	10.7	22.3	32.3	24.7	22.1	17.4	21.1	21.5	24.2	20.8	18.3
Two or three times a year	5.0	9.0	10.8	6.8	5.3	8.7	7.3	8.1	9.8	7.3	5.0
On special occaions only	23.1	23.5	14.0	23.3	28.3	29.0	21.8	26.8	26.8	22.4	20.0
TOTAL	99.9 N=121	100.0 N=166	100.1 N=93	100.0 N=73	99.9 N=113	100.0 N=69	100.0 N=426	100.0 N=209	100.0 N=194	100.1 N=317	99.9 N=120

*X^2 = 34.973, df = 20, sign. = 0.02 ** X^2 = 2.906, df = 4, sign = 0.57 ***X^2 = 11.460, df = 8, sign. = 0.18

TABLE 50.14

FREQUENCY OF SOCIAL OUTINGS BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Number of Outings	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
None	15.2	14.6	15.0	11.8	13.8	15.7	13.2	17.0	12.6	14.1	19.2
1 or 2 outings	29.1	32.7	31.2	26.9	29.6	33.1	31.3	29.7	29.7	32.0	29.9
3 or 4 outings	22.8	26.3	26.0	33.3	29.6	21.3	26.7	25.4	31.5	23.3	23.4
5 to 9 outings	20.3	20.0	22.0	18.3	15.7	18.1	19.9	18.0	16.1	22.4	16.8
10 or more outings	12.7	6.3	5.8	9.7	11.3	11.8	9.0	9.9	10.1	8.2	10.8
TOTAL	100.1 N=158	99.9 N=205	100.0 N=173	100.0 N=93	100.0 N=159	100.0 N=127	100.1 N=592	100.0 N=323	100.0 N=317	100.0 N=425	100.1 N=167

*X^2 = 15.949, df = 20, sign. = 0.38 **X^2 = 3.057, df = 4, sign. = 0.55 ***X^2 = 14.479, df = 8, sign. = 0.07

TABLE 50.15

WHETHER RESPONDENTS WENT OUT AS OFTEN AS WANTED BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE** AND BY AGE ***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
Went out as often as wanted	80.7	74.9	74.7	79.6	78.1	82.8	79.3	75.6	73.8	81.1	80.0
Did not go out as often as wanted	19.3	25.1	25.3	20.4	21.9	17.2	20.7	24.4	26.3	18.9	20.0
TOTAL	100.0 N=161	100.0 N=203	100.0 N=174	100.0 N=93	100.0 N=160	100.0 N=128	100.0 N=595	100.0 N=324	100.1 N=320	100.0 N=428	100.0 N=165

*X^2 = 4.822, df = 5, sign. = 0.44 **X^2 = 1.475, df = 1,sign. = 0.22 ***X^2 = 6.122, df = 2,sign. = 0.05

TABLE 50.16

WHETHER RESPONDENTS DID ANY VISITING BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
Visited no-one in the past week	21.7	26.9	23.9	21.5	30.2	22.3	24.1	26.1	17.4	28.7	27.5
Visited some-one in the past week	78.3	73.1	76.1	78.5	69.8	77.7	75.9	73.9	82.6	71.3	72.5
TOTAL	100.0 N=161	100.0 N=208	100.0 N=176	100.0 N=93	100.0 N=162	100.0 N=130	100.0 N=601	100.0 N=329	100.0 N=321	100.0 N=432	100.0 N=171

*X^2 = 4.940, df = 5, sign. 0.42 **X^2 = 0.360, df = 1, sign. 0.55 ***X^2 = 13.560 df = 2, sign. 0.00

TABLE 50.17

WHETHER RESPONDENTS HAD VISITORS BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
No visitors in past week	16.3	12.0	9.7	12.9	15.4	14.6	14.0	12.2	14.0	14.6	8.2
Some visitors in past week	83.8	88.0	90.3	87.1	84.6	85.4	86.0	87.8	86.0	85.4	91.8
TOTAL	100.1 N=160	100.0 N=208	100.0 N=176	100.0 N=93	100.0 N=162	100.0 N=130	100.0 N=601	100.0 N=328	100.0 N=321	100.0 N=432	100.0 N=170

*X^2 = 4.358, df = 5, sign. = 0.50 **X^2 = 0.438, df = 1, sign. = 0.51 ***X^2 = 4.561, df = 2, sign. = 0.10

TABLE 50.18

NUMBER OF FRIENDS RESPONDENTS CONTACT REGULARLY BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE** AND BY AGE***

Number of Friends	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
1 to 5 persons	29.9	25.0	35.5	31.9	21.2	28.3	26.6	31.5	34.1	26.1	23.0
6 to 10 persons	28.6	34.5	22.5	37.4	33.1	25.8	30.5	29.3	34.1	28.1	27.9
11 to 15 persons	5.8	16.0	12.4	12.1	8.6	5.8	10.5	10.5	11.7	11.1	7.3
16 to 20 persons	14.3	4.0	4.7	4.4	8.6	4.2	8.6	3.5	6.5	7.1	6.1
21 or more persons	7.8	6.0	7.7	4.4	7.3	5.0	6.5	6.7	3.9	7.6	9.1
Number unspecified	13.6	14.5	17.2	9.9	21.2	30.8	17.3	18.5	9.7	20.0	26.7
TOTAL	100.0 N=154	100.0 N=200	100.0 N=169	100.1 N=91	100.0 N=151	99.9 N=120	100.0 N=571	100.0 N=314	100.0 N=308	100.0 N=406	100.1 N=165

*X^2 = 66.574, df = 25, sign. = 0.00 ** X^2 = 9.680, df = 5, sign. = 0.08 ***X^2 = 36.175, df = 10, sign. = 0.00

TABLE 50.19

FREQUENCY OF TALKS WITH NEIGHBOURS BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
Regularly	53.5	60.4	61.1	51.1	59.0	48.8	55.6	58.3	54.9	56.9	59.2
Occasionally	37.1	33.3	34.3	38.0	36.0	45.7	39.2	32.4	36.1	38.5	33.7
Hardly Ever	9.4	6.3	4.6	10.9	5.0	5.4	5.2	9.3	9.1	4.7	7.1
TOTAL	100.0 N=159	100.0 N=207	100.0 N=175	100.0 N=92	100.0 N=161	99.9 N=129	100.0 N=599	100.0 N=324	100.1 N=319	100.1 N=429	100.0 N=169

*X^2 = 13.824, df = 10, sign. = 0.18 ** X^2 = 8.244, df = 2, sign. = 0.02 *** X^2 = 6.636, df = 4, sign. = 0.16

TABLE 50.20

HAVING A REGULAR HOLIDAY BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Response Category	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 to 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
Have had a holiday	89.4	87.0	85.2	93.5	89.4	87.8	88.7	87.5	91.3	88.0	84.7
Have not had a holiday	10.6	13.0	14.8	6.5	10.6	12.2	11.3	12.5	8.8	12.0	15.3
TOTAL	100.0 N=140	100.0 N=208	100.0 N=176	100.0 N=93	100.0 N=161	100.0 N=131	100.0 N=601	100.0 N=328	100.1 N=320	100.0 N=433	100.0 N=170

*X^2 = 4.821, df = 5, sign. = 0.44 ** X^2 = 0.185, df = 1, sign. = 0.67 ***X^2 = 4.898, df = 2, sign. = 0.09

TABLE 50.21

AVERAGE LENGTH OF HOLIDAY BY REGION*, BY FARM AND NON-FARM RESIDENCE**, AND BY AGE***

Number of Weeks per year	South-land %	Canter-bury %	Nelson %	Southern Hawke's Bay %	Waikato %	North-land %	Farm Residents %	Non-Farm Residents %	18 - 35 years %	36 to 55 years %	56 years or older %
1 week	16.1	24.5	22.4	22.4	21.6	21.4	27.1	14.2	24.8	25.3	10.9
2 weeks	66.1	52.3	50.6	35.8	35.3	41.2	47.6	48.9	51.3	47.3	43.7
3 weeks	11.9	11.3	16.5	25.4	25.9	15.7	14.3	21.8	12.8	17.1	24.4
Other	5.9	11.9	10.6	16.4	17.2	14.7	11.1	15.1	11.1	10.3	21.0
TOTAL	100.0 N=118	100.0 N=151	100.1 N=85	100.0 N=67	100.0 N=116	100.0 N=102	100.1 N=414	100.0 N=225	100.0 N=226	100.0 N=292	100.0 N=119

$^{*}X^2 = 40.454$, df = 15, sign. = 0.00 $^{**}X^2 = 17.450$, df = 3, sign. = 0.00 $^{***}X^2 = 24.200$, df = 6, sign. = 0.00

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QUESTIONNAIRE

The Department of Psychology and Sociology of the University of Canterbury, in conjunction with the Women's Division of Federated Farmers, is undertaking a project on Rural Women.

The aim of the survey is to document life styles, attitudes and possible problems of women living in country areas.

Your co-operation will be greatly appreciated.

THE INFORMATION WILL BE CONFIDENTIAL AND ANONYMOUS

Respondent's Number; Interviewer; County; District (within the county).

Farm Non-Farm Town/Township

I COULD WE START BY ASKING SOME BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF.

1. Where did your parents live when you were born?

2. For how many years have you lived in New Zealand?

3. In what year were you born?

4. What is your race?

5. What is your marital status?

The next six questions are for respondents who are or have been married. If never married go to question 12.

6. In what year were you (first) married?

7. What was your husband's age when you were (first) married?

The next four questions are for respondents who are still married. If not presently married go to question 12.

8. Is your husband:
Self-employed/Working on own account (with no hired labour);
Employee; Other (specify)

9. What kind of work does your husband do?

10. How much school education does your husband have?
(specify e.g., primary school, 1-2 years, secondary school, U.E.)

11. What further education or trade qualifications does he have?
(specify e.g. commercial or trade certificate, diploma or degree)

12. How much school education do you have?
(specify e.g. primary school, 1-2 years secondary school, U.E.)

13. What further education or trade qualifications do you have?
(specify e.g. commercial or trade certificate, diploma or degree)

14. Who lives with you in this household?
(specify, e.g. husband, 3 children and a farm worker)

15. Is there anyone in your household who requires particular care?
(specify, e.g. handicapped child, elderly parent)

16. How many children have you?

If no children go to question 19.

17. In what year were they born? (record year of birth of each child)

18. How many of your children have left school?

19. What is your religion or denomination?

20. Where were you brought up? (specify the area)

21. Which one of these statements best describes that area when you lived there?
Isolated rural area; Rural area; Small town; Large town or city; One of the four main cities in New Zealand - Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch, Dunedin; Overseas/other (record details)

22. Which one of these statements best describes the area you live in now?
Isolated rural area; Rural area; Small town; Large town or city; Other (specify)

23. For how long have you lived in this area?

24. Which of these statements best described the area you lived in before this area? (When you lived there)
Always lived in this area; Isolated rural area; Rural area; Small town; Large town or city; One of the four main cities in New Zealand - Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch, Dunedin; Overseas/other (record details)

25. Why did you move to this area?

26. If you could move now, what kind of area would you like to live in?
Would not like to move; Isolated rural area; Rural area; Small town; Large town or city; One of the four main cities in New Zealand - Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch, Dunedin; Overseas/other (record details)

Only ask this question if respondent would like to move:

27. Why would you like to move? (Give your own personal reasons)

28. When you or your husband retire, where do you intend to live?
Continue to live in this house; Move to another house in this area; Move to another rural area; Move to an urban area; Don't know; Already retired; Other (specify)

29. If you intend to retire to another area, what are your reasons for doing so?

30. Do you consider the cost of living in rural areas to be:
    Higher than in urban areas; Lower than in urban areas; About the same; Don't know; Other (record details)

Only ask the next question if respondent answered "higher" or "lower" to the previous question:

31. Why do you think the cost of living in rural areas is "Higher"/ "Lower"?

32. Do you consider the quality of life in rural areas to be:
    Better than in urban areas; Worse than in urban areas; About the same; Don't know; Other (record details)

Only ask the next question if respondent answered "better" or "worse" to the previous question:

33. Why do you think the quality of life in rural areas is "better"/ "worse"?

34. Which of these statements describes your household best?
    Do without many things you need; Have the things you need but not extras; Have the things you need as well as a few extras; Have the things you need as well as many extras (or money left for saving); Don't know; Other (record details)

35. How much do you spend on yourself monthly? (Give an average figure for clothes, cosmetics etc.)

36. Do you feel this is adequate?

37. How do you feel about living in the country? (are you or have you been depressed or lonely?)

Only ask the next question if respondent is or has been lonely or depressed.

38. If you have been lonely or depressed, where did you get help?

39. To women running a household: Does anyone regularly share the housework with you? If so, who?
    No help; Children; Husband; Paid help; Other - specify

40. In case of illness or emergency, who would take over?

41. Who in your household makes decisions concerning: (record below)

Decision	Self	Husband	Joint (Specify)	Other (Specify)
Family expenditure (e.g. clothing, Furniture and holidays)				
Children's education				

42. Are there any comments you would like to make about the questions we have just covered?

II THIS SECTION IS FOR RESPONDENTS LIVING ON A FARM. If the respondent is not living on a farm go to question 58.

43. Who owns this farm?

44. If you, yourself, own some of the farm, in what way do you own it? (e.g. jointly with husband or family, or partnership, a company, a trust)

45. What kind of farm is this? (Be as specific as you can, e.g. record whether mixed dairy-cropping, mixed beef-sheep)

46. What size farm is this? (in acres)

47. What proportion of your household income comes from farming? (record a rough fraction of income)

48. Do you, yourself, own part or all of any other property? (specify)

49. Do you work on the farm? (include paper work)

If the respondent does not work on the farm, go to question 53.

50. What kind of work do you do on the farm? (include paper work; be as specific as you can)

51. For how many hours a week (approximately)? (if seasonal work, e.g. 20 hours a week for 4 weeks)

52. Do you actually receive money for this work?

53. What type of labour is employed on the farm during a normal year? How many? (on the farm respondent lives on)
Give number of each type of worker; Regular, Full-time; Regular, Part-time; Seasonal, Full-time; Seasonal, Part-time; Occasional, Full-time; Occasional, Part-time; Other (specify)

54. If labour is employed, do you cook for them or do their washing?

55. If yes, do you actually receive money for these services?

56. Who makes decisions concerning:

Decision (for the farm respondent lives on)	Self	Husband	Joint (specify)	Other (specify)
The day-to-day running of the farm				
Seasonal planning of the farm				
Finance and investment				

57. Are there any comments you would like to make about the questions we have just covered?

III CAN WE NOW ASK SOME QUESTIONS RELATED TO YOUR WORK EXPERIENCE?

58. What was your main reason for leaving school? (e.g. wanted to work, had gone as far as could, had to look after elderly parents)

59. What did you do immediately after you left school?

The next two questions are for respondents who are married or have been married. If this does not apply go to question 62.

60. Were you in paid employment before you got married? If yes, for how long?

61. Were you, or have you been, in paid employment, after you were married? If yes, for how long?

62. Are there employment opportunities for you in the area?

63. If yes, what are they?

64. If you had your choice, would you prefer full-time or part-time employment?

65. Can you say why?

66. Would you consider attending a refresher or a training course for work or employment?

67. If yes, what kind of a course would you like to attend?

WORK EXPERIENCE - PART A

For respondents in paid employment (other than for the farm they live on), full or part-time.

If respondent is not in paid employment go to part B, question 74.

68. What work do you do?

69. Do you work full-time, part-time, occasionally, or other (specify)?

70. How much do you earn (Gross)?

71. What is your main reason for working?

If respondent has no dependent children go to question 74.

72. Who looks after your children while you are at work?

73. What arrangements do you make for your children if you work during school holidays?

WORK EXPERIENCE - PART B

For respondents who are not in paid employment

If respondent is in paid employment go to the next section, question 80.

74. What would be your main reason for taking up employment?

75. What was your last job?

76. What was your main reason for leaving your last job?

77. If you don't intend to take up employment can you say why?

78. If you do intend to take up employment, what work do you hope to do?

79. Are there any comments you would like to make about the questions we have just covered?

IV CHILDREN'S SCHOOLING

If respondent has no pre-school or school-age children go to question 97.

80. Are there pre-school facilities in your area?

81. How many of your children attend pre-school facilities? (record number) In the area; Outside the area.

82. How many of your children are at primary school?

83. What kind of primary school do they attend? (record number of children at each type of primary school)
State; Private; Correspondence; Other (specify)

84. How many of your children are at secondary school?

85. What kind of secondary school do they attend? (record number of children at each type of secondary school)
State; Private; Correspondence; Other (specify)

Only ask this question if any children attend a private school

86. Why do your children go to a private school?

Only ask this question if any children are receiving correspondence lessons.

87. Why do your children receive correspondence lessons?

If all school age children are at boarding school, go to question 91.

88. How long does it take for your children to travel to school? What is the daily travelling time both ways?

89. What means of transport do they use?

90. If they use the school bus, how much does it cost you a year? (over and above the travelling bursary)

91. Is is difficult for your children to take part in extra curricular activities? If so, why?

92. Do your children board to attend school?

If no children boarding go to question 96.

93. If yes, do they board:
Full-time (with only occasional weekends and holidays at home)
Part-time (Monday to Friday or Saturday)
Other (specify)

94. What boarding arrangements do you have for the children? (record number of children at each boarding place)
Board at a state school; Board at a private school; Board privately; Board with relatives; Other (specify).

95. Why do your children board?

96. Are there any comments you would like to make about the questions we have just covered?

V WE WOULD NOW LIKE TO KNOW ABOUT THE AVAILABILITY OF CERTAIN SERVICES AND AMENITIES

97. How much time do you actually spend travelling to go shopping for groceries?

98. How often do you go shopping for groceries?

99. How much time do you spend travelling to church?

100. How often do you go to church?

101. How much time do you spend travelling to your nearest rural town? Which town?

102. How often do you go to your nearest rural town?

103. How much time do you spend travelling to your nearest large town or city? Which town?

104. How often do you go to your nearest large town or city?

105. What is the distance, in miles, to your nearest available:
Doctor; Dentist; General Hospital; Maternity hospital or ward; Veterinary surgeon.

106. Is there a registered nurse available when you need one?

107. What is the distance, in miles, to your nearest:
Primary school; Intermediate school; Secondary school.

108. Do you have transport readily available?
Yes - private; Yes - public; No; Other (e.g. taxi or sharing arrangements - record details)

109. Do you drive?

110. Do you have a telephone?
Yes automatic; Yes, party line; Yes but operates on a limited service only; No telephone; Radio telephone; Other (specify)

111. How often do you get your mail?

112. How do you get it? (is it delivered or do you have to collect it; if collected record the distance)

113. Are there any comments you would like to make about the questions we have just covered?

VI NOW WE WOULD LIKE TO KNOW SOMETHING ABOUT WHO YOU VISIT, WHO VISITS YOU AND HOW OFTEN.

114. How many people did you visit during last week?

115. Who were they?
(record no names, just the relationship to the respondent, e.g. mother-in-law and a friend)

116. How many people visited you during the last week?

117. Who were they?
(record no names, just the relationship to the respondent, e.g. mother-in-law and a friend)

118. If your parents do not live with you, how often are you in contact with them? (record also if parent(s) deceased)

119. If your husbands parents do not live with you, how often are you in contact with them? (record also if deceased)

120. If you have grown-up children not living with you, how often are you in contact with them?

121. With how many of your relatives are you in regular contact? (record number)

122. With how many of your friends are you in regular contact? (record number)

123. How often do you talk to your neighbours?
Regularly; Occasionally; Hardly ever; Other (specify)

124. How long does it take you to get to your nearest neighbour?

125. Are there any comments you would like to make about the questions we have just covered?

VII IN THE LAST SECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE WE WOULD LIKE TO ASK SOMETHING ABOUT YOUR SPARE TIME ACTIVITIES AND CLUB MEMBERSHIP.

126. Do you do any community work?
(specify, e.g. youth group work, hospital visiting, work for the handicapped).

127. For how many hours a week are you involved in such work? (approximately

128. What (other) organisations or clubs do you belong to?
(specify e.g. sports clubs, church organisations, political parties, handicraft groups, women's organisations).

129. Do you hold any official positions in the clubs or organisations you belong to at present?

130. What was your main reason for joining?
(e.g. contact with people, to do something for the community, to get out of the house)

131. What other kinds of activity would you like to see in the clubs or organisations that you already belong to?

132. How many times did you go out socially in the last month?

133. Was this as often as you wanted?

134. If no, what prevented you from going out more often?

135. Which courses or classes have you undertaken in the last year? (e.g. adult education, correspondence school or university course, pottery or ante-natal classes)

136. What other spare time activities, hobbies or sporting interests do you have?

137. Is there any spare time activity, club or organisation which interests you but is not available in your area? (specify)

138. For how many hours a week do you watch television?

139. How many holidays have you had in the last three years (1972, 1973, 1974)?

140. If none, why were you unable to have a holiday?

141. What was the average length of your holiday? (e.g. 2 weeks and/or 3 weekends per year)

142. And finally, two very general questions .
What aspects of your life do you find the most satisfying?

143. How could your life be more satisfying?

144. Are there any comments you would like to make about any of the questions that have been asked?

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